THRESHOLD LEVEL OF ENGLISH-LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY FOR EFL WRITING: EFFECT OF THE INTERACTION BETWEEN ENGLISH-LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY AND WRITING SKILLS ON KOREAN COLLEGE STUDENTS' EFL WRITING

By

HOYEOL RYU

A DISSERTATION PRESENTED TO THE GRADUATE SCHOOL
OF THE UNIVERSITY OF FLORIDA IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT
OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

UNIVERSITY OF FLORIDA

1997

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to express my deepest appreciation to my advisor, Dr. Clemens L. Hall. Without his careful and warm guidance, the completion of this research would not have been possible. I also owe much to the rest of the committee members. They have helped me find the right direction for the research and the way to execute it with great patience and kindness. In addition, I am grateful to the five Korean professors who allowed me to conduct the study during their class hours. They not only fully supported and guided my research effort, but also showed great enthusiasm for English education in Korean colleges and universities.

I can never forget the sacrifice and support my parents have shown for my education. They have gladly endured hardships for their son's future. The debt I owe them will never be repaid. Finally, I thank my wife and daughter for their patience and support. My wife and colleague, Jin-Yeon, has shown great patience and support during the entire research process. My little Kyong-Min has also contributed to my research effort with her smiling face and never-ending cheer.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS.....ii

LIST OF TABLES.....v

LIST OF FIGURES.....vii

ABSTRACT.....viii

CHAPTERS

1 INTRODUCTION.....1

Statement of Problem.....1
Significance of the Study.....3
Rationale of the Study.....5
Definition of Terms.....9

2 REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE.....11

Nature of Writing Skills.....11
Nature of Foreign-Language Writing.....21
Contrastive Rhetoric and Foreign-Language Writing.....29
Transfer of Writing Skills across Languages.....44

3 METHODS AND PROCEDURES.....53

Null Hypotheses.....53
Description of Subjects.....54
Procedures.....55
Measurement Instruments.....59
Measurement Scoring.....60
Data Treatments.....63

4 RESULTS.....68

Relationship between English-Language
Proficiency and EFL Writing Skills.....68
Relationship between Korean and EFL Writing Skills.....76
Multiple Regression Analysis.....80
Summary and Conclusion.....89

5 DISCUSSION.....91

Review of the Previous Chapters.....91
Context of the Study.....95
Discussion of the Results.....100
Hypothesis 1 and 3.....100
Threshold Level of English-Language Proficiency for doing EFL Writing.....100
Contrastive Rhetoric.....110
Hypothesis 2.....111
Hypothesis 4.....115
Implications for Foreign-Language Writing Teaching.....117
Communicative Competence and Foreign-Language Writing.....117
Analysis of Foreign-Language Writing Tasks.....126
Limitations and Suggestions.....130

APPENDIX A LETTER OF CONSENT TO STUDENTS.....133

APPENDIX B LETTER OF CONSENT TO INSTRUCTORS.....135

APPENDIX C WRITING TEST SHEET (TOPIC A).....137

APPENDIX D WRITING TEST SHEET (TOPIC B).....138

APPENDIX E SCORING PRINCIPLES FOR KOREAN AND ENGLISH WRITING TEST.....139

REFERENCES.....148

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH.....157

LIST OF TABLES

Table | Page

1 Language for Each Writing Topic.....56

2 Correlation Coefficients between the Scores of Each Section of the Michigan Test and the EFL Writing Test Scores.....70

3 Mean Scores of the Michigan Test and EFL Writing Test by Each English-Language Proficiency Group.....71

4 Correlation Coefficients between the Michigan Test and EFL Writing Test Scores for the High and Low Scoring Groups on the Michigan Test.....74

5 Correlation Coefficients between Each Section of the Michigan Test Scores and the EFL Writing Test Scores for the High and Low Michigan Test Scoring Groups.....74

6 Correlation Coefficients between the Korean and EFL Writing Test Scores for the Three Different Michigan Test Scoring Groups.....77

7 Correlation Coefficients between the Korean and EFL Writing Test Scores on the Six Scoring Categories for the Low and High English-Language Proficiency Groups.....79

8 Multiple Regression Analysis for the Entire Subject Group.....80

9 Multiple Linear Regression for the Entire Subject Group.....81

10 Multiple Correlation Coefficients for the Entire Subject Group.....82

11 Multiple Regression Analysis for the Low English-Language Proficiency Group.....84

12 Multiple Linear Regression for the Low English-Language Proficiency Group.....84

13 Multiple Correlation Coefficients for the Low English-Language Proficiency Group.....86

14 Multiple Regression Analysis for the High English-Language Proficiency Group.....86

15 Multiple Linear Regression for the High English-Language Proficiency Group.....87

16 Multiple Correlation Coefficients for the High English-Language Proficiency Group.....88

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure		Page
1	Murray's View of Writing Process	12
2	Cognitive Writing Process Model	14
3	Increase of EFL Writing Test Scores by the Increase of the Michigan Test Scores	73
4	Effect of the Interaction between English-Language and Korean Writing Skills on EFL Writing Skills	105
5	EFL Writing Instruction Development	109

Abstract of Dissertation Presented to the Graduate School of the University of Florida in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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By

Hoyeol Ryu

August 1997

Chairman: Dr. Clemens L Hallman
Major Department: Instruction and Curriculum

Since English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) writers face both linguistic and rhetorical problems, English language skills alone do not guarantee proficiency in EFL writing. Writing is basically a process of cognitive problem-solving. Studies comparing second- or foreign-language writing process with that of first-language writing demonstrated many similarities between first- and second- or foreign-language writing process. However, the transfer of writing skills from a first to a second or foreign language is possible only when the writer possesses an adequate level of second or foreign language skills.

It was hypothesized in the present study that, if the subjects reached a certain level of English language proficiency, their writing skills would be more strongly influenced by their native language, Korean, writing skills than their English language proficiency. The results of the study supported the hypothesis. When the subjects scored 51 or more points on the Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency, while their EFL writing skills were significantly correlated with their Korean writing skills, the relationship between EFL writing skills and English language proficiency was not significant. In contrast, for those who scored less than 51 points, the relationships were reversed. In addition, the present study also showed that for the subjects whose Michigan Test scores ranged between 41 and 50 points, both the Korean writing skills and the English language proficiency were significantly correlated with the EFL writing skills.

The results of the present study suggest that the focus of EFL writing instruction should vary depending on the students' English-language proficiency. For low English-language proficiency students, the focus of EFL writing instruction should be on developing their English-language skills. For intermediate English learners whose English-language proficiency and native-language writing skills are significantly correlated with their EFL writing skills at the same time, the focus of the instruction should be on developing both English language and writing skills. For

advanced English learners, the focus of the instruction should be on developing their writing skills rather than their English language skills. Finally, this study suggests that a task of EFL writing consists of various communicative components, and they should be carefully reviewed and included in the curriculum.

CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

Statement of Problem

The purpose of this research is to study the threshold level of English-language proficiency for producing effective English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) writing. Traditionally, EFL writing has been regarded as a kind of grammar exercise and little attention has been paid to the writer's creation of meaning (Zamel, 1976). However, EFL writing is more than learning and exercising English grammar skills. Studies of second- and foreign-language writing process found that second- and foreign-language writers' behaviors are similar to those of first-language writers (Arndt, 1987; Chelala, 1981; Jacobs, 1982; Jones, 1983; Jones & Tetroe, 1987; Raimes, 1985, 1987; Roen, 1989; Zamel, 1982, 1983a). Second- and foreign-language writers also try to create and communicate meaning to other people as do first-language writers. Therefore, second- and foreign-language writers need not only language skills but also writing skills.

Writing has been considered to be a process of cognitive problem-solving (Flower, 1979, 1981; Flower & Hayes, 1977, 1980, 1981). As a writer proceeds in writing, he/she continuously faces rhetorical problems. When the

problems are perceived, the writer activates his/her cognitive strategies to cope with the problems (Flower & Hayes, 1981). Murray (1980) viewed writing as a process of discovering meaning. As a writer goes through and repeats the process of rehearsing, drafting, and revising, he/she explores and clarifies his/her intended meaning. These characteristics of writing equally apply to foreign-language writing, to the extent that the writer wants to create and communicate his/her intended meaning to other people. Since writing skills are usually acquired through a first language, looking at the relationship between first- and foreign-language writing skills provides important information about the relationship between language and writing skills in foreign-language writing.

Foreign-language writing, however, is different from first-language writing. While first-language writers naturally acquire language skills, foreign-language writers must learn language skills. In addition, unlike first-language writers, foreign-language writers' language skills are incomplete. Many second- and foreign-language writing studies emphasized that both language and writing skills are critically important in a writers' attempts to create and communicate meaning (Berman, 1994; Cumming, 1989; Hirose & Sasaki, 1994; Silva, 1993). Thus, if we consider the increased importance of language skills in foreign-language writing, the question of how much importance foreign-language skills have, as well as how these skills interact

with writing skills in foreign-language writing, needs to be answered. This study is intended to provide an empirical data on the threshold level of English-language proficiency for producing effective EFL writing by looking at Korean college students' EFL writing skills, English-language proficiency, and Korean writing skills.

Significance of the Study

English-language proficiency is a critical skill needed to write in English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL). Zamel (1976) saw language proficiency as what prepares the writer to create meaning. Without adequate linguistic knowledge, the writer will experience difficulties in generating language. Bereiter (1980) identified a sequence of writing ability development. At the beginning of the sequence, a writer must go through the associative writing stage in which he/she has problems in generating ideas and language. Unless the writer fully masters the skills needed to cope with the problems, his/her writing ability cannot develop to the next stage. Second- and foreign-language writers, therefore, must reach an adequate level of language proficiency in order to generate language and further develop his/her writing skills.

Once the writer reaches an adequate level of language proficiency, language proficiency is no longer a decisive factor in determining writing quality. The writer is ready to create meaning, as well as to turn attention to the higher-level, more refined or complex writing skills

(Cumming, 1989; Hirose & Sasaki, 1994; Zamel, 1976). In light of this, one of the main purposes of this study is to identify the level of EFL proficiency needed in order to enable the writer to turn attention to higher-level EFL writing skills.

The findings of this study will contribute not only to enhancing our understanding of the nature of foreign-language writing, but also to improving its pedagogy. Zamel (1976) explained that there are two ends in the continuum of second-language writing instruction. One end is totally controlled writing instruction in which such writing exercises as substitution, manipulation, or transformation of sentences and patterns prevail. The other end is free composition, where frequent uncontrolled writing exercises take place. The identification of students' English-language proficiency and of the necessary level of English-language proficiency to develop the writer's higher-level writing skills will help the teacher determine what type of writing instruction in the continuum is appropriate to his/her students.

The understanding of first-language writing skills and their relationship with foreign-language writing skills is of fundamental importance in understanding the nature of foreign-language writing. Since writing has been regarded basically as a process of cognitive problem-solving (Flower & Hayes, 1977, 1981), both first- and foreign-language writers are to be looked upon as being involved in the same

process. Furthermore, studies of second- and foreign-language writing process have suggested that the use of cognitive strategies are based on writers' writing ability development (Arndt, 1987; Chelala, 1981; Jacobs, 1982; Jones, 1983; Raimes, 1985, 1987; Roen, 1989; Zamel, 1982, 1983a). As poor first-language writers are more likely to become poor second- or foreign-language writers, good first-language writers are more likely to become good second- or foreign-language writers. Therefore, the identification of Korean college students' first-language writing ability development provides the teacher with invaluable information in planning an EFL writing curriculum.

Rationale of the Study

Raimes (1983) presented the theory that second- and foreign-language writing involves both linguistic and non-linguistic elements. The purpose of second- and foreign-language writing is "clear, fluent, and effective communication of ideas." (p. 6) In Raimes' framework of second- and foreign-language writing, producing a piece of second- or foreign-language writing involves syntax, grammar, mechanics, organization, word choice, purpose, audience, the writer's process, and content. Edelsky (1982) also differentiated literacy skills from language skills. She listed the factors which are used in second-language writing. The factors are "the nature of the written system of the two languages, the writer's proficiency in L2, the nature of the literacy experience, sociolinguistic

constraints, and the nature of the writing process itself." (p. 211)

Like first-language writers, second- and foreign-language writers are primarily concerned with creating meaningful text rather than producing correct language. To create meaningful text, writers must perform three tasks: making meaning, communicating, and persuading (Bitzer, 1968; Flower, 1981; Flower & Hayes, 1980a). Flower and Hayes (1980a) saw that writing problems are not discovered by the writer, but rather actively created by the writer. They identified two types of writing problems. The first type of writing problem which a rhetorical situation casts, includes exigency or assignment and audience. The second type of writing problem is created by the writer him/herself and includes problems of "reader, persona or self, meaning, and text." (p. 24) Both first- and second- or foreign-language writers seem to face the same goal and the same tasks in relation to creating and communicating meaningful text.

If we assume that both first- and second- or foreign-language writers have the same purpose and tasks, their writing behaviors should be similar to each other. Second- and foreign-language writing process studies have suggested that there are many similarities between first- and second- or foreign-language writers' behaviors (Arndt, 1988; Cumming, 1989; Eisterhold, 1990; Jacobs, 1982; Jones, 1983; Raimes, 1987; Roen, 1989; Zamel, 1982, 1983a). For example, Raimes (1987) showed how the writing behaviors of unskilled

English-as-a-second-language (ESL) writers were similar to those of basic English-speaking writers. Thus, factors determining second- or foreign-language writers' behaviors seem to be largely based on their writing ability development.

However, the role second- or foreign-language proficiency plays in writing cannot be neglected. Zamel (1976) emphasized the importance of both language and writing skills in ESL writing instruction. Berman (1994) presented a study which showed that those who were more proficient at second-language grammar were generally better at second-language writing. Hirose and Sasake (1994) also showed that English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) proficiency accounted for a considerable portion of Japanese college students' EFL writing skills. These studies suggest the idea that foreign-language skills are basically a mixture of language and writing skills.

Cummins (1984) divided language proficiency into two levels, deep and surface levels of language proficiency. The surface level of language proficiency represents basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS), which include such knowledge as pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar. The deep level of language proficiency represents cognitive, academic language proficiency (CALP), which includes such knowledge as that of the semantic and functional meaning of language. The distinction of BICS from CALP can be further extended to the differentiation of separate underlying

proficiency (SUP) from common underlying proficiency (CUP). Cummins said that, although language forms look different, there is a common underlying proficiency across languages. An obvious example of CUP is conceptual knowledge. In Cummins' example, if one knows the concept of "honesty" in one language, he/she only has to know a new label in another language for the already existing concept. He hypothesized that if there is adequate exposure to a second or foreign language, CUP acquired in the first language readily transfers to the second or foreign language. On the basis of these theoretical assumptions, Cummins mentioned that writing skills are an example of CUP and transfer across languages.

> By the same token, subject matter knowledge, higher-order thinking skills, reading strategies, writing composition skills, etc. developed through the medium of L1 transfer or become available to L2 given sufficient exposure and motivation. (p. 144)

The reviewed second- and foreign-language writing studies suggest that once second- or foreign-language writers have adequate language skills for a given writing task, their writing skills transferred from the first language will help them create and communicate meaningful text in a second or foreign language. However, as it is apparent that foreign-language writers lack linguistic devices to express their ideas, language skills are often likely to be unnecessarily overemphasized. In the same

light, when students evidently lack linguistic devices to deal with a given writing task, excessive emphasis on writing skills may do more harm than good to the development of their foreign-language writing skills. Thus, identifying the necessary level of language skills for a given writing task would help the teacher develop a writing instruction which effectively meets the students' needs for both language and writing skills.

Definition of Terms

Cognitive process of writing is a view which sees writing as consisting of cognitive problems which a writer must actively create as well as to which he/she must find solutions in order to create meaningful text.

Contrastive rhetoric assumes that since different cultures have different ways of thinking, different languages show different ways of organizing writings.

First language is a speaker's native language

Foreign language is a speaker's non-native language, to which he/she cannot find exposure in his/her surroundings, except in a classroom.

Language skills refers to the knowledge necessary to use a particular language.

Process-oriented writing research emphasizes the process of writing instead of the product. This writing research method proposes that looking at the product alone

does not show anything about what is taking place during writing, and it is the former which has more pedagogical importance.

Protocol analysis (composing-aloud method) is a way of investigating a writer's writing process. When a writer is engaged in writing, he/she is asked to speak out whatever comes to mind.

Second language is a speaker's non-native language to which he/she can get natural exposure in his/her surroundings.

Threshold level of foreign-language proficiency refers to the necessary level of foreign-language proficiency to create and communicate a meaningful message to the reader.

Writing process refers to the process by which a writer explores and clarifies his/her intended meaning through writing.

Writing skills are rhetorical and other necessary abilities which are independent of language skills.

CHAPTER 2
REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

The purpose of this chapter is to review the related studies on the nature of writing skills and foreign-language writing skills. To understand the nature of writing, we need to know what writers are doing during composition. Process-oriented and cognitive writing studies showed us what problems writers faced and what they did to solve the problems. The first part of the chapter reviews process-oriented and cognitive writing studies. Similarly, a review of studies of the second- and foreign-language writing process in the second part provides us with information about what problems second- and foreign-language writers have and what they do to solve the problems. Attempts to explain foreign-language writing by contrastive rhetoric and by the criticisms against it are reviewed in the third part of the chapter. The last part is concerned with the transfer of writing skills across languages as well as its conditions. The chapter concludes with a summary.

Nature of Writing Skills

Process-oriented writing studies presented what writers were actually doing during composing. Emig (1971) first introduced the composing-aloud method of writing research and showed what twelfth graders were thinking and doing

during composing. Murray (1980) defined writing as "a significant kind of thinking in which the symbols of language assume a purpose of their own and instruct the writer during the composing process." (p. 3) His explanation of writing clearly points out that writing is not the process of transcribing but the process of exploring and clarifying meaning. This process-oriented view of writing is largely based on the cognitivists' view of writing, in which there are two elements of writing, thinking and process (Johns, 1990). The cognitive theory of writing considers writing process to be, basically, a process of cognitive problem-solving (Flower, 1979, 1981; Flower & Hayes, 1977, 1980a 1980b, 1980c; Flower et al., 1986).

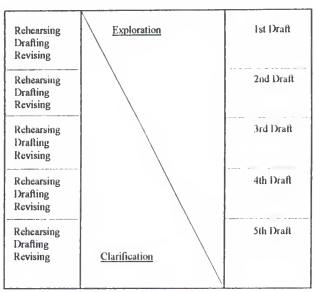


Figure 1. Murray's View of Writing Process

Murray (1980) showed that writing progresses as a writer explores and clarifies meaning in Figure 1. Murray cautioned that, although the above figure appears to suggest that writers go through a sequence of rehearsing, drafting, and revising, writing does not occur in a linear fashion. Perl (1980) stated that, as writing progresses, the writer continuously rereads what has been written and plans what is coming next.

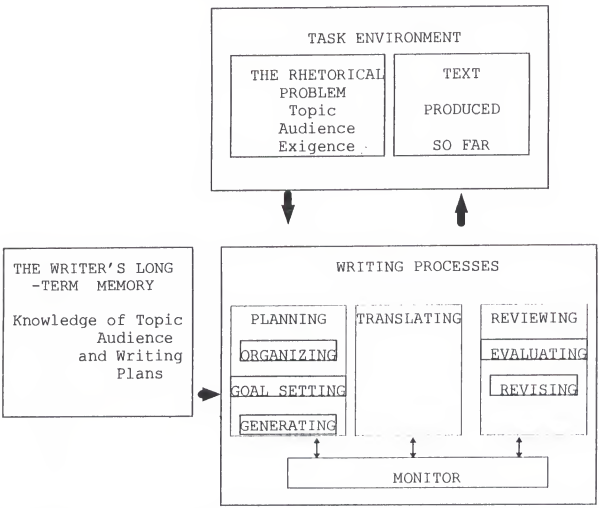
> Composing does not occur in a straightforward, linear fashion. The process is one of accumulating discrete words or phrases down on the paper and then working from these bits to reflect upon, structure, and then further develop what she means to say. (p. 318)

Flower (1979, 1981) and Flower and Hayes (1977, 1980a 1980b, 1980c, 1981; Flower et al., 1986) saw writing as cognitive problem-solving. In their view, writing consists of a complex set of problems which a writer is required to solve using his/her cognitive strategies. Flower and Hayes (1981) identified four characteristics of writing.

1. The process of writing is best understood as a set of distinctive thinking process which writers orchestrate or organize during the act of composing.
2. The writing processes have a hierarchical, highly embedded organization in which any given process can be embedded within any other.
3. The act of composing itself a goal-directed thinking process guided by the writer's own growing network of goals.
4. Writers create their own goals in two key ways: by generating both high-level goals and supporting sub-goals which embody the writer's developing sense of purpose, and then, at times, by changing major

> goals, even establishing entirely new ones based on what has been learned in the act of writing. (p.366)

In the same study, Flower and Hayes presented a writing process model in which elements of writing are hierarchically structured and interact with each other. In the model, a writing task consists of three main elements: Task environment, writing processes, and the writer's long-term memory. The three main elements are further specifically structured by subelements.



igure 2. Cognitive Writing Process Model (Flower & Hayes, 981, p. 370)

The arrows in the figure indicate that the elements interact in two ways. For example, knowledge about audience from long-term memory can be transferred to and used in the planning process, and information from the planning process can flow back the other way. As writing develops, new elements enter into the task environment, which places constraints on what the writer can say. Growing text also makes a demand on the writer's time and attention. In doing so, it is competing with two other elements, the writer's knowledge stored in long-term memory and the writer's original plan to deal with rhetorical problems. It is the writer's task to face and integrate these multiple constraints in the production of new sentences.

Flower and Hayes (1977) mentioned that not only were many writing problems actually thinking problems, but also, poor writers were usually poor thinkers. Such writers usually have a limited repertory of thinking techniques available to them. When the writers meet a block, their limited repertory of thinking skills makes them unable to change tactics. Flower and Hayes (1977, 1980b) showed that the problems of a writer's limited repertory and inadequate thinking techniques can be solved by teaching heuristics to deal with rhetorical problems. The first stage of heuristics is planning, in which the writers are asked to set a goal as well as to decide the direction of the writing. In the second stage of generating ideas in words,

the writers are asked to develop ideas without the consideration of writing them first, and then to summarize the ideas in a simple form like a cue word or a tree diagram. As they proceed in writing, they need to read their own writing from an editorial perspective. Finally, in the third stage, they construct text for an audience. Writers need to consider what goals they can share with the readers and what possible miscommunication can occur. They also need to develop and test their rhetorical strategies to achieve the goals of the writing.

During the course of writing ability development, the writer is required to go through a series of problems, each of which characterizes his/her cognitive and writing ability development. Bereiter (1980) proposed that a writer is required to acquire the following skills during the course of his/her writing development: 1) fluency in producing written language, 2) fluency in generating ideas, 3) mastery of writing conventions, 4) social cognition, 5) literacy appreciation and determination, and 6) reflective thought. These skills should be mastered in order as a writer goes through the stages of associative, performative, communicative, unified, and epistemic writing. Associative writing involves fluency in generating written languages and ideas, so it resembles what Britton et al. (1975) called expressive writing, a primitive form of writing present in the early development of writing. In the associative stage of writing, there is no room for the writer to consider

audience. His/Her cognitive capacity has been already exhausted by focusing on generating languages and ideas. While writers are forming ideas, it is advisable that they not be cognitively overloaded by paying additional attention to audience (Elbow, 1987; Hashimoto, 1986; Roen and Wiley, 1988). Once a writer begins to be able to produce language and ideas without much cognitive work, he/she can turn attention to mastering writing conventions, which is the performative writing stage. In turn, once he/she automatizes the performative writing skills, he/she is ready to move into the communicative writing stage with a focus on social cognitive skills, the unified writing stage, with a focus on literacy appreciation and discrimination, and, finally, reaches the epistemic stage in which a writer's reflexive thoughts are stressed. Bereiter's explanation of the six writing stages suggests that, as a writer goes through each stage of writing, he/she is freed from the cognitive demands of the lower-level tasks and is able to turn his/her attention to the higher-level tasks.

Flower (1979) proposed two types of prose depending on the degree of accommodation of the reader's perspective in the writing. First, she defined writer-based prose as an "untransformed mode of expression." (p.19) Many basic writers fail to take into account the reader's perspective and produce egocentric writing which Shaughnessy (1977) characterized as "... reflected in the assumption that the reader understands what is going on in the writer's mind and

needs therefore no introductions or transitions or explanation." (p.240) Shaughnessy added that the product of this egocentrism was such that "the passage has more the quality of a writer's inner, preverbalized thought, not yet shaped for communication." (p.232) In contrast, reader-based prose involves the writer's obvious attempt to communicate intended meaning to the reader. Flower suggested that writer-based prose could be transformed to reader-based prose by helping the writer understand how to handle the demanding cognitive tasks of writing

Odell (1983) mentioned that maturity in writing could be defined in terms of a writer's cognitive development and his/her audience awareness. The features of mature writing, Odell pointed out, are that the writer: 1) anticipate and respond to objections and questions the audience is likely to have, 2) recognize the legitimacy as well as limitations of other points of view on a given subject, 3) acknowledge, where appropriate, the limitations of his own point of view, indicating what his/her theories can not explain, taking note of and trying to reconcile evidence that appears to contradict his/her ideas or feelings, and 4) recognize the complexity of the subject at hand, attending to more than a single feature of an experience. (p. 104) Odell mentioned that many writing problems were exclusively cognitive, and that their cause could be found in a writer's egocentrism. He pointed out the following:

> Indeed, I suspect that what often appears to be 'writing problems' may be cognitive problems; at least some of three problems may appear because writers(at whatever age) have learned to go beyond their egocentric, overly simple view of a subject or have not come to understand that their audience is someone who may not see the world as the writer does and who must, therefore, be accommodated in a variety of ways. (pp. 102-103)

A writers' attempt to integrate audience into writing can also be understood from the same perspective which sees writing as cognitive problem-solving. Scardamalia et al. (1977) proposed that the following six steps were involved in a writer's social cognitive functioning.

1. content: This is the knowledge from which the content of communication is to be drawn.
2. anticipatory concern: The communicator concerned about possible success or failure of the communication, looks ahead and tries to anticipate its effects.
3. role-taking: In trying to anticipate effects, the communicator takes the point of view of the receiver, considering what the receiver will and will not know, how the receiver will construe the message, etc.
4. anticipatory knowledge: The outcome of role taking should be some knowledge of what the communication problems are in the task at hand- what the possible misunderstandings and gaps in understanding may be. Note that this is task-specific knowledge, not general knowledge of audience characteristics. It consists of items such as "When I say the third spotlight' people may not be sure whether to include the one they turned at."
5. audience related specifications: In order to become operative, this anticipatory knowledge of possible audience reactions must be translated into specifications for the message-- specifications such as emphasize a, avoid suggesting b, warn against c, distinguish clearly between d and e.
6. execution: The communicator must now bring his linguistic resources to bear on constructing a

> message that meets the audience related specifications along with any other specifications imposed on the task. (pp. 3-4)

In order for a writer to successfully accommodate audience to writing, he/she should go through the above six steps of social cognition. As he/she goes through the steps, he/she, however, can fail at any of the steps and be unable to proceed further, resulting in the failure of social cognition in writing. It should also be noted that the steps are not differentiated from one another, rather, they should be viewed as interlocking, one forming a necessary condition for another. For example, role-taking and anticipatory knowledge are not dissociable, because it is impossible to gain anticipatory knowledge without role-taking.

Rubin (1984) also suggested that written communication depended on a writer's operation of social cognition and that social cognition was a multivariate rather than a unitary construct. Rubin proposed that a writer's social cognition was developmentally sequenced in five domains: 1) subskills by which the writer infers the reader's perspectives and represents them in the writing, 2) coordination of perspectives, which the writer varies along a developmental dimension reflecting his/her sophistication, 3) content domain, which refers to the degree to which the writer can infer the readers' internal states, 4) content

stability, which refers to the writer's ability to determine the duration of the perceived mental states of the reader, and 5) audience determinatedness, which refers to the writer's ability to point out audience in a continuum from a specific other to a diffused generalized other. (pp. 220-221) Rubin also stressed the interdependence of the domains and the contribution of each domain to the entire process of a writer's social cognition in writing.

The nature of writing skills has been studied by reviewing the process-oriented and cognitive writing research in this part of the chapter. The reviewed research indicates that writing is a process of dealing with rhetorical problems by using cognitive strategies. If writers are able to effectively deal with cognitive problems, it is more likely that they will create and communicate meaningful text with the reader.

Nature of Foreign-Language Writing

The question of how foreign-language writing can be effectively taught can be answered only when the teacher has an understanding of its nature. With the emergence of process-oriented writing research, second- and foreign-language writing researchers have begun paying attention to the process of composing and have been advocating that findings from first-language writing studies should be introduced to second- and foreign-language writing research

and pedagogy. Zamel (1976) is one of those who felt the necessity of introducing findings from English writing research to second- or foreign-language writing research

> What we have failed to realize is that by the time our students are ready to write compositions, that is, create and express their thoughts and ideas in the second language, they need the same kind of instruction that students in English classrooms need. (p. 68)

Silva (1990) mentioned that second-language writing should be considered as an interactive process between the writer and the text as well as between the reader and the text in its context. Susser (1994) proposed that the meaning of process should be widened and interpreted in terms of 1) process as writing itself, 2) process as the pedagogy of writing, and 3) process as a theory or theories of writing. Methodologically, second-language composing process has been examined by the "composing aloud method" in which a writer continuously speaks out what is occurring to his/her mind while composing (Emig, 1971). This composing aloud method has been introduced and widely used by second- and foreign-language writing researchers (Arndt, 1987; Chelala, 1981; Jones, 1983; Jones & Tetroe, 1987; Raimes, 1985, 1987a; Zamel, 1983).

In her review of second-language writing process studies, Kraples (1990) identified two major themes among the studies. First, many of them focused on differentiating

the composing process of fluent second-language writers from that of unskilled second-language writers, which carries a pedagogical implication that instruction in the fluent writers' composing strategies should be included in a second-language writing curriculum to help the unskilled writers. Secondly, second-language writers' composing process was compared to that of first-language writers to find that the two processes were very similar. This discovery led second- and foreign-language writing researchers to claim that findings from English writing research should be readily introduced to second- and foreign-language writing research and pedagogy.

Zamel (1983b) examined the composing process of six advanced ESL learners. This study revealed that, regardless of their differences in writing ability, all six ESL writers went through a nonlinear process of writing. They recursively returned to the point where a problem was noticed. In the study, unsuccessful writers were more concerned with local errors such as grammar and spelling than successful writers, so they paused more frequently to solve mechanical problems. They, therefore, spent a large amount of time on finishing the first draft, and little revision occurred during their composing process. On the contrary, skilled writers were more concerned with global problems of writing which were related to creating meaning.

They usually delayed solving local problems until global problems were resolved.

Chelala's study of two Spanish-speaking ESL writers' composing process (1981) also identified successful and unsuccessful writing strategies. Among successful writing strategies were note-taking as a way of generating ideas, narrowing down the topic, use of cohesive devices, revision to match text with meaning, appeal to authority, editing to insert connectives, and the addition of concrete examples. In contrast, unsuccessful writing strategies included avoiding a clear intention before writing, using strategies from other media of expression such as painting, holding a broad topic, uncertain feelings about the topic and coherence of the writing, use of the native language as a source, language switching, overgeneralization, reliance on lexical cohesion for textual coherence, not reading the complete draft, and lack of revision and editing.

Jones (1983) compared two ESL writers' writing strategies by using the composing-aloud method. In the study, while the experienced writer who tried to connect the next segment of writing to the last segment by re-reading, the inexperienced writer did not employ such a strategy. The experienced writer also differed from the inexperienced writer in his/her ability to distance him/herself from the text and evaluate the text in relation to his/her writing.

On the other hand, when the experienced writer faced local problems of writing, he/she alternated re-reading and text-generation as did the inexperienced writer. The experienced writer was able to arrange the text to meet rhetorical needs. Finally, they differed with regard to planning as well as in awareness of the direction of the writing. In conclusion, while the experienced writer was more likely to appreciate the nature of the composing process, the inexperienced writer lacked this understanding and seemed to fall into what Bereiter (1980) called the performative writing stage, in which writers are merely jotting down their ideas and language without considering writing conventions and audience.

The features of remedial and nonremedial ESL writers were sought for and compared with each other (Raimes, 1987). The nonremedial ESL writers more frequently used such strategies as planning, rehearsing, rescanning, revising, and editing than did remedial ESL writers. Their heightened awareness of writing enables them not only to use various writing options, but also to meet the reader's expectation of correctness. On the contrary, the remedial writers spent less time on writing and revising, compared to their nonremedial peers. The remedial writers focused heavily on local problems, so they did editing throughout the whole composing process. This study, however, showed that there

was not a close relationship between English-language proficiency and English writing abilities. The suggested reason for this in the study was that English learning background and first-language writing instruction played bigger roles in deciding the level of English writing abilities.

In contrast to the previous studies, in which only second- and foreign-language writing processes were investigated, Arndt (1987) studied six Chinese postgraduate writers' composing processes in Chinese and English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL). This study found that, regardless of whether they wrote in either Chinese or English, their writing behaviors in each language were very similar. Rather, variation of writing behaviors occurred among writers. Another point revealed in the study was that many writing difficulties could be attributed to an inadequate understanding of writing tasks. The writers failed not only to show an adequate understanding of the nature of written language, but also to exploit the creative nature of writing.

In addition to studying the composing process of second- and foreign-language writers alone, Raimes (1985) compared unskilled ESL writers' composing process with that of unskilled English-speaking college writers (Perl, 1979). Just as both groups of inexperienced writers demonstrated

poor writing behaviors regardless of whether the writing was done in the first or second language, they also displayed many common features in their writing behaviors. First, there was little consideration of the audience and the purpose of the writing for both groups. Second, the unskilled ESL writers decided what to write quite early, without clear planning for the direction of the writing. Third, their re-reading of what had been written was usually done for one or two preceding sentences rather than for a whole chunk of text. Fourth, both groups utilized the strategy of voicing-out possible ideas and strategies in order to proceed writing. Finally, both groups paused frequently to correct local writing problems rather than focusing on global problems.

Second-language writers' revising behaviors, between their first- and second-language writing, were shown to be very similar (Hall, 1990). In this study, ESL writers more frequently revised their second-language writing than their first-language writing. Their revision pattern, however, showed great similarities between the two kinds of writings. They revised most frequently at the word level, 62 percent in the first-language writing versus 59 percent in the second-language writing, followed by 29 percent versus 26 percent at the phrase level. The type of revision was also similar for the two kinds of writings. Substitution was

most frequently used in both first- and second-language writing, 54 percent in the first-language writing versus 45 percent in the second-language writing, followed by deletion and addition, each of which accounted for about 20 percent of total revisions in both first- and second-language writing. The purpose of revision was also similar for both kinds of writings. More than half of all revisions were done for informational purposes, 52 percent in the first-language writing versus 51 percent in the second-language writing, followed by correction of grammatical and mechanical mistakes, 38 percent versus 42 percent. This study clearly showed that there were great similarities between first- and second-language revision processes.

Despite similarities between first- and second-language writing processes, Silva (1993) maintained that equal attention needed to be paid to the differences to appreciate the distinct nature of second- or foreign-language writing.

> This focus does not represent an attempt to ignore, deny, or trivialize the many important similarities between L1 and L2 writing: it stems from the belief that understanding these differences is crucial to comprehending and addressing ESL writers' special needs. (p. 660)

He claimed that second-language writers experienced more difficulties throughout a whole composing process. Second-language writers did less planning and reviewing than first-language writers, whereas second-language writers were more

laborious in transcribing. With regard to the quality of a written product, second-language writers were less fluent and accurate than first-language writers. Second-language writers were also shown to be limited in reader awareness, the understanding of textual features, and syntactic and lexical complexity. His findings seemed to generally confirm what Taylor (1981) mentioned as qualitative differences between first- and second- or foreign-language writing.

Contrastive Rhetoric and Foreign-Language Writing

The understanding of Kaplan's study of contrastive rhetoric (1966) provides another insight into the nature of foreign-language writing. The theory of contrastive rhetoric assumes that each culture has its own logic from which distinctive rhetoric develops.

> Logic(in the popular, rather than the logician's sense of the word) which is the basis of rhetoric, is evolved out of a culture; it is not universal. Rhetoric is not universal either, but varies from culture to culture and even from time to time within a given culture. It is affected by canons of taste within a given culture at a given time. (p. 2)

Although this view of writing has greatly contributed to enhancing the understanding of second- and foreign-language writing, its simplistic view of second-language writing has been criticized by many second- and foreign-language writing

researchers. Studies related to contrastive rhetoric theory and its criticism are reviewed in this part.

Kaplan (1966) showed how text is structured differently in each culture. For example, he mentioned that Semitic languages build a paragraph with a complex series of parallel constructions. The pattern of developing the theme of a paragraph in Semitic languages, therefore, differs from English, in which a paragraph is developed in a straightforward manner. The rhetoric of oriental languages is another example of contrastive rhetoric. Kaplan characterized the rhetoric of oriental languages as an indirect approach to the theme of writing.

> Some oriental writings, on the other hand, is marked by what may be called an approach by indirection. In this kind of writing, the development of the paragraph may be said to be "turning and turning in a widening gyre." The circles or gyres turn around the subject and show it from a variety of tangential views, but the subject is never looked at directly. Things are developed in terms of what they are not, rather than what they are. (p. 10)

Eggington (1987) explained that Korean writing has the typical features of oriental writings so that the theme of writing was referred to indirectly. He pointed out that Korean writing is developed following the pattern of *ki*, in which the writer begins the argument, *sung*, develops the argument, *chon*, changes the direction of the argument toward a connected sub-theme, and *kyul*, reaches a conclusion.

Eggington explained that the presence of *chon* in Korean writing confused American readers, in that there is no such element in English rhetoric.

Eggington's study also claimed that there was a clear contrast between traditional Korean writings and writings done by Koreans who had educational experience in America. While traditional Korean writings followed the pattern of *ki-sung-chon-kyul*, writings by those with educational experiences in America were structured following the English rhetorical pattern of introduction, body, and conclusion. The rhetorical pattern of those with American education caused comprehension problems for traditional Korean readers, much the same way as writings following the Korean rhetorical pattern confused American readers. This study, therefore, strongly suggested that educational experience is a powerful factor in influencing one's rhetorical preference.

In addition to cultural differences in organizing a paragraph, Hinds (1987) suggested that either the writer or the reader was responsible for constructing the meaning of a message depending on cultural differences. In Asian languages such as Japanese and Korean, for example, the reader is responsible for constructing the meaning. In contrast, the writer is responsible for constructing the meaning in Western languages including English. Hinds

claimed that, while English is a subject-prominent language which places subject at the initial position of a sentence and shows S V O word order, Korean and Japanese show S O V word order, which equally values the subject and the topic of a sentence. He believed that such language- and culture-related differences hindered the writer in writing effectively in other languages.

Spiritual and philosophical elements have been stressed in the acquisition of oriental literacy skills, particularly in Chinese. Lay (1978) demonstrated that spiritual and philosophical aspects of Chinese culture were well reflected in its linguistic system and caused problems in Chinese speakers' attempts to write in English. Lay suggested that since Chinese people inherited the philosophy of *yin* and *yang*, a different view of life and learning from that of Westerners, and a linguistic system which preserved such cultural features, the underlying principles of Chinese speakers' English writing were quite distinct from those of English speakers. The different orientations of writing, then, caused Chinese speakers problems in English writing. Bell (1995) also emphasized the importance of such spiritual elements as concentration and balance in the acquisition of Chinese literacy skills.

The examination of a particular type of writing in different languages would clearly disclose their different

rhetorical patterns. Jenkins and Hinds (1987) examined the organization of English, French, and Japanese business letters and compared them to one another. This study revealed that the surface structure of business letters in all three languages was similar and consisted mainly of introduction, body, and ending salutation. Despite the similarity in the surface structure, each culture had a different approach to business letter writing. English business letters were reader-oriented, so the writer needed to analyze the rhetorical situation from the reader's perspective and to focus on the body. The writer's attempt to create an intimate relationship with the reader was also apparent in English business letters. In contrast to English business letter writing, French business letters were very official and writer-oriented due to the custom of using the letters as records of transactions. Japanese business letters valued the relationship between the writer and the reader, so the writer's concern was with the format of the letter and with maintaining the appropriate relationship with the reader. Jenkins and Hinds explained these differences in business letter writing in term of high- and low-context culture. While English business letters were created in a low-context culture where the writer needed to elaborate the context of communication, a high-context culture was reflected in Japanese business

letters, where the context of communication was assumed to be implicitly understood among the participants. French business letters seemed to fall between the two extremes.

Ferris (1994) studied different rhetorical patterns of native English writers from those of the non-native writers in persuasive writing. First, the native writers focused on a few topics rather than introducing many subtopics to writing. Second, the native writers usually utilized basic sentence types in which topical subject, grammatical subject, and initial sentence element were identical, so they could be regarded as more direct in putting forth their arguments. In contrast, the non-native speakers preferred using the type of sentences which began with a discourse marker or in which the main clause was followed by the dependent clause. Third, counter-arguments which might be raised from the reader were more frequently included in the native writings, so the writings were more likely to be reader-oriented. The native writers were also well aware of the necessity of giving closure to an argument. With regard to the use of coherent devices, the non-native writers more frequently used parallel progression in which the topical subject of a sentence was identical to that of the previous sentence, whereas the native writers usually used the sequential progression in which the topical subject arose from the comment portion of the previous sentence.

Despite the invaluable insight into the nature of second- and foreign-language writing contrastive rhetoric provides, it has been criticized, largely due to its simplistic view of second- and foreign-language writing.

In the review of contrastive rhetoric studies, Leki (1991) mentioned that process-oriented second- and foreign-language writing researchers discredit contrastive rhetoric for the following reasons: 1) its emphasis on product over process of writing, 2) its attribution of second-language writing problems to cultural differences rather than to developmental factors, 3) its implication of the negative transfer of first-language writing skills to the second- or foreign-language writing. Leki added that it was easy for contrastive rhetoric to stereotype or overgeneralize writings in a language. She suggested that there are many writing contexts in a language where writing styles vary greatly. For example, she pointed out that Braddock (1974) made it clear that even professional English-speaking writers do not always write in a straightforward fashion, as proposed by Kaplan (1966).

Liebman (1992) explained that, although rhetoric is involved in the five elements of invention, memory, arrangement, delivery, and style, contrastive rhetoric is limited to dealing with paragraph arrangement. Furthermore, despite its importance in writing research, examination of

the social context of writing is mostly absent from studies of contrastive rhetoric. The absence of social context in contrastive rhetoric studies again leads to research investigating only visible and static features of writing. Another drawback is its confusion of process with product. Despite the fact that a linear text structure does not mean a linear process of composing, contrastive rhetoric theory might give students the faulty idea that the composing process is linear.

Perhaps the biggest drawback to contrastive rhetoric is the fact that it overlooks the role that formal education in writing plays in the development of rhetorical skills. Liebman mentioned that, unlike grammatical skills, writing skills are not acquired naturally.

> The biggest difference between the acquisition of rhetorical as opposed to grammatical skills is that the first language grammar is usually acquired naturally, in a home environment, whereas both the first and the second language rhetoric are taught in the schools. (p. 146)

Carson (1992) studied the process of Japanese and Chinese students' learning writing skills. She found that the acquisition of writing skills in the two countries was strongly influenced by such social and educational factors as "attitude toward literacy, the structure of the educational system, the underlying philosophy of education, the social structure and cultural values that are reflected

in classrooms, and the content and perceived function of elementary and secondary school language arts curricula." (p. 38) Carson added that, since the focus of Japanese and Chinese language arts curricula was on mastering thousands of Chinese characters, learning and imitating model structures were prevalent.

The acquisition of ESL writing skills is also influenced by formal instruction. In a traditional ESL writing classroom, the teachers view themselves primarily as language teachers, so the focus of writing instruction is on surface-level features rather than on a whole unit of discourse (Zamel, 1987). Zamel added that the fact that teachers rarely utilized the students' intention and knowledge, as well as the lack of encouragement and a supportive environment, contributed to the students' failure in effective written communication. Raimes (1983) reported the shift of ESL writing pedagogy from the traditional method, which emphasized surface-level writing skills, to a new method which emphasized "language as communication, real language use, student-centered writing classrooms, natural language acquisition, interpersonal approaches, the learner, the learning process, and the learning environment." (p. 543) Horowitz (1986) also maintained that ESL writing pedagogy should be determined on the basis of information regarding what kind of writing tasks ESL students faced

frequently in their learning of other subjects. In the survey of writing tasks in American universities, the most common types of writing tasks were description, summary, synthesis of information, annotated bibliography, reports on a specified participatory experience, and connection of theory and data. ESL writing teachers should be able to expect these types of writing tasks and integrate them into their curriculum.

Mohan and Lo (1985) demonstrated that formal education in writing was a decisive factor in developing writing skills. They refuted Kaplan's view of Chinese rhetoric, characterized as an indirect approach to the theme of writing, and indicated that Kaplan's explanation of Chinese rhetoric was limited to one of numerous historical literacy forms, *wen-yan*. They explained that the use of *wen-yan* was limited to the occasion of Chinese civil service examinations and that the use of *wen-yan* was abolished in 1901. They also showed that, contrary to Kaplan's characterization of Chinese rhetoric, most Chinese composition books recommended the use of writing principles similar to those of English writing. They contended that the reason for Chinese students' difficulty in English writing, therefore, should be sought elsewhere rather than in the negative transfer of writing skills from the first language. They pointed out the reason that difficulties in foreign-

language writing cannot be accounted for by the negative transfer of writing skills from the first language in the following passage:

> Another way to look at this point is to reverse cultural roles and imagine a Chinese researcher analyzing the expository essays of English speaking students writing in Mandarin. If the researcher made claims based on these essays about the pattern of English expository prose, we would be unlikely to accept them. (p. 521)

Like a Chinese writing curriculum, a Korean writing curriculum values the importance of clear, effective communication. For example, a Korean writing textbook (Suh, 1985) emphasized the three stages of writing development, introduction, main body, and conclusion. Furthermore, a straightforward fashion of developing the theme is strongly recommended in Korean writing. Suh said that ancient Greek rhetoric, which is the basis of Western rhetoric, also embodies the basic principles of contemporary Korean writing. It is also true that Eggington's description of Korean writing structure, *ki-sung-chon-kyul*, has limited application to a Korean novel. *Chon* is the point where the dramatic effect of a novel reaches the highest point and where the implicitly stated theme of a novel becomes apparent. This may be an example of what Leki (1991) called the problem of stereotyping or overgeneralizing in contrastive rhetoric. Furthermore, in their study of English

and Japanese EFL writing raters' reactions to Japanese college students' EFL writings (Kobayashi, 1992), Kobayashi found that English raters gave more positive evaluations than Japanese raters in terms of organization and clarity of meaning, suggesting that the influence of the writers' native culture on the organization is not so great as contrastive rhetoric assumes.

Choi (1988) provided counter-evidence against contrastive rhetoric in regard to rhetorical differences in different cultures. In her study, English speakers' English argumentative essays were compared to Korean and English argumentative essays of Korean speakers who were studying at an American university. The results of the study indicated that, although there were minor variations in the order of text components, both English and Korean speakers' essays included the elements of claim, justification, and conclusion in their essays. Furthermore, the study revealed that the variation in the order of the components depended on the task each topic required rather than on the writer's native culture. Korean speakers' text structure in English writing was more similar to the structure of English speakers than to that of their Korean writing. Although these Korean speakers' writing could be influenced by their educational experiences in America, the study suggested that there were many common features between the two groups and

the elements of claim, justification, and conclusion might be a universal feature of argumentative essays. Another study also suggested the existence of universal rhetoric in argumentative essays. Connor (1987b) examined argumentative essays written in Finnish, German, and English in terms of text structure, speech acts, and audience awareness. The examination of the highest- and the lowest-rated essays revealed that the best-rated essays in each language group satisfied cross-cultural expectations, implying a universal style of argumentative writings.

Scarcella (1984) suggested that differences between first- and second-language writing were caused largely by second-language writers' lack of grammatical and other necessary skills to write in the language, but not necessarily by cultural differences. In her study, she examined native and non-native English writers' English expository essays in terms of their reader orientation. This study found that the native writers were able to use a variety of attention-getting devices and to state the themes of their writings clearly. In contrast, the non-native writers utilized only a limited number of structurally simple attention-getting devices. The study implied that the non-native writer's incomplete grammatical and writing skills brought to their writings different reader-orientations from those of the native writers.

Methodologically, the use of text analysis method in contrastive rhetoric is not complete, but needs to be complemented by process-centered writing studies in order to understand the nature of second-language composition more comprehensively (Connor, 1987a). The focus of text analysis has been traditionally on the cohesiveness of sentences and paragraphs. Text analysis, however, has been widening its scope by including a functional sentence perspective which emphasizes the importance of the coherence of text as well as of that of a topical structure perspective which helps students reconsider text as a whole and examine the coherence of text. Sentences are composed of propositions which define the relationships between a predicate and arguments and reflect the semantic representation of the reader and the writer in process-oriented text analysis. Text, therefore, is a complex set of propositions, each of which performs certain rhetorical functions. Connor maintained that only when these approaches to examining writing were integrated to a new paradigm, was a better understanding of writing as product and process possible. Contrastive rhetoric, with its heavy reliance on traditional text analysis method, seems to provide only a limited view of the nature of second- and foreign-language writing.

In response to the above criticisms and counter-evidences against contrastive rhetoric, Kaplan (1987) and

Grabe and Kaplan (1989) provided additional explanations of contrastive rhetoric. First, Kaplan (1987) acknowledged the crude view of contrastive rhetoric with regard to its sole reliance on cultural factors rather than on the learning of composition skills in explaining the acquisition of composition skills. Grabe and Kaplan (1989) contended that contrastive rhetoric was compatible with a process-oriented model of writing. They explained that, since writing could be seen as a series of cognitive problem-solvings, there should be a place for cognitive processing of contrastive rhetoric during writing. They also maintained that contrastive rhetoric was concerned not only with the influence of first language on the organization of second- or foreign-language writing, but also with its text coherence, perceived audience awareness, and rhetorical context features. In light of their new explanation of contrastive rhetoric, Kaplan (1987) stressed that contrastive rhetoric is of significant importance in a sociolinguistic perspective of second- and foreign-language writing pedagogy.

> The non-native speaker does not possess as complete an inventory of possible alternatives, does not recognize the sociolinguistic constraints on those alternatives, and does not recognize what sorts of constraints of a choice imposes on the text which follows. (p. 11)

In summary, contrastive rhetoric assumes that difficulties in foreign-language writing mainly arise from the difference between a writer's native and foreign-language culture. Although contrastive rhetoric provides an invaluable insight into the nature of foreign-language writing, it fails to understand that second- and foreign-language writing should not be explained by a single element of cultural difference, but by a complex set of elements and their interactions. The reviewed criticisms against contrastive rhetoric include that it overlooks the role formal education plays in learning foreign-language writing skills, the foreign-language writers' lack of grammatical and writing skills, and the existence of universal rhetoric. This theory also uses an incomplete method in the examination of foreign-language writing.

Transfer of Writing Skills across Languages

The studies which investigated the transfer of writing skills from a first to a second or foreign language are reviewed in this part. While process-oriented second- and foreign-language writing studies clearly indicate that there are many similarities between a first- and second- and foreign-language writing process, contrastive rhetoric assumes the negative transfer of writing skills from a first to a second or foreign language. Silva (1993) also emphasized the importance of a balanced view between the

similarities and the differences. It is also important to note how first-language writing skills are related to foreign-language writing skills, depending on the writer's foreign-language proficiency. Along with the review of the studies dealing with theoretical issues in the transfer of writing skills across languages, some correlational studies between first- and second-language writing proficiency (Berman, 1994; Carson et al., 1990; Cumming, 1989; Hirose and Sasaki, 1994) are reviewed in this part.

Cummins (1979) proposed two hypotheses regarding the transfer of literacy skills across languages. The first hypothesis is the interdependence hypothesis, which supposes that the development of second-language competence is possible only when first-language competence is well-developed enough for the transfer of first-language skills to a second language to occur. The second hypothesis is the threshold hypothesis, which assumes that second-language learners must reach at least a threshold level of first-language proficiency to avoid the negative effects of second- language learning. Cummins (1984) summarized the above two hypotheses as follows:

> to the extent that instruction in Lx is effective in promoting [academic] proficiency in Lx, transfer of this proficiency to Ly will occur provided there is adequate exposure to Ly (either in school or environment) and adequate motivation to learn Ly. (p. 143)

Cummins (1989) maintained that, although surface aspects of different languages were separated, there is an underlying cognitive/academic proficiency which is common and transfers across languages.

In their examination of the explanatory variables of Japanese college students' EFL writing, Hirose and Sasaki (1994) found close relationships among Japanese college students' EFL and Japanese composition skills and their English-language proficiency. In this study, 74.5 percent of English composition skills were explained by both English- language proficiency and Japanese composition skills. In detail, 14.3 percent of English composition skills were explained by English-language proficiency, 17.8 percent by the Japanese composition skills, and 42.4 percent by the interaction of both variables. The study, therefore, indicated that English-language proficiency and first-language writing skills may be the biggest factors in explaining Japanese college students' English writing.

Carson et al. (1990) investigated the relationships between Japanese and Chinese ESL students' reading and writing skills in their first and second languages. Significant relationships were observed between first-language reading skills of both groups and their English reading skills. In the relationship between first- and

second-language writing, while Japanese students' second-language writing skills were significantly related to their first-language writing skills, Chinese students did not show the same relationship. The authors attributed this to the fact that, as the length of stay in the U.S. and English-language proficiency increases, first-language writing skills decrease. There were also significant relationships between first-language reading and writing and between second- language reading and writing.

In addition to second-language proficiency and first-language writing skills, instruction in the second-language writing was shown to be closely related to writing skills. Berman (1994) investigated the effects of Icelandic students' English grammar knowledge, first-language writing abilities, and writing instruction on their English writing fluency. The study found that writing instruction in the first language was more effective than instruction in the second language. The study also revealed that writing instruction, regardless of whether it was done in either the first or the second language, appeared to have a positive effect on the students' English writing. The students with advanced English grammatical knowledge benefited more from instruction in increasing organizational skills than those with poor English grammatical knowledge. When the instruction was done in the second language, there was not

much difference in increasing organizational skills between those who had advanced and those who had poor English grammatical knowledge. The study thus confirmed the effects of writing instruction and grammatical knowledge on developing second-language writing abilities.

Cumming (1989) investigated the effects of English-language proficiency and first-language writing skills on three types of ESL writing: letter, argument, and summary of booklet, with regard to discourse organization, content, and language use. Generally, when the writers were within the same level of English-language proficiency, their first-language writing skills were the major factor in determining their ESL writing abilities in all three types of ESL writing. For all three types of writing, the writers at all levels of English-language proficiency and first-language writing abilities paid their highest degree of attention to the content, followed by language, procedures, and structure of writing. In the same study, the protocol analysis of writing process revealed that most writers focused on identifying and resolving writing problems without much reliance on a heuristic search to evaluate a problem. However, the statistical analysis showed that the use of heuristic strategies explained the largest portion of first-language writing abilities and English-language proficiency. The study confirmed that proficient first-language writers'

strategies were transferred to second-language writing and different writing tasks. The difference between proficient and inexperienced writers was noticeable mostly in the coherence of the text. Although English-language proficiency was a factor in facilitating second-language writing, it did not entail the qualitative changes in thinking process and decision-making used for composing.

The use of first language during second-language writing process was shown to be beneficial to writers in drawing content-related schemata which had been acquired in their first language (Friedlander, 1990). In his study, Friedlander investigated the effect of Chinese students' using their native language during the planning stage of EFL writing. The results indicated that the use of the native language enabled the writers to better retrieve the content-related information, and the text resulting from this enhanced retrieval was qualitatively better than the text produced when the writers were forced to use English during the whole process of writing. This study implied that not only does translation from first to second language during second-language writing process not necessarily hinder writers from writing in the second language, but also there is a positive transfer of conceptual knowledge from first- to second-language learning as proposed by Cummins (1984).

The studies reviewed for this part strongly suggest positive and close relationships between first- and second-language writing abilities. As Raimes (1983) proposed, second-language writing consists of multiple components which should be dealt with either commonly or distinctively between first- and second-language writing. Apparently, such components as syntax, grammar, mechanics, vocabulary, and organization are distinct in each language. However, considering the close relationship between writing and thinking, many elements of writing seem to be governed by a common cognitive process between first- and second- or foreign-language writing. In her examination of children's acquisition of second-language literacy skills, Edelsky (1982) explained the similarities and differences between first- and second-language writing.

> What was applied was: general strategies (i.e., account for the input, use the resources available), 'higher-level' knowledge (i.e., that texts are contextually constrained), and the crucial process of orchestration. The factors (singly and in combination) which impinged on these ideas, strategies, and processes were the nature of the two different systems, the nature of the children's literacy experiences, their level of proficiency, sociolinguistic constraints, and the nature of the writing process itself. (p. 225)

Second-language writing is clearly similar to first-language writing in some aspects, but differs from it in the others. In her review of second-language writing research, Krapels

(1990) found inconsistencies in research findings regarding similarities between first- and second-language writing process. These inconsistencies can only be explained in terms of the focus of the reviewed studies. While some studies focused on the independent features of second-language writing as opposed to first-language writing, the dependence of second-language writing on first-language writing was apparently emphasized in the others.

First- and second-language writing process, however, does not always display similarities. Eisterhold (1990) pointed out that there were conditions to satisfy for the transfer of writing skills across languages to occur.

> 1. There exists a common underlying proficiency with a threshold level of language proficiency that allows skills to transfer.
> 2. There exists an underlying proficiency with a threshold level of language proficiency and a cognitive restructuring that allows skills to transfer.
> 3. There exist separate language systems with a cognitive separation of language skills. Transfer occurs at the point where two previously separated but structurally similar language routines come together. (p. 98)

Eisterhold's explanation clearly indicated that the transfer is not automatic. Depending upon what type of writing skills are to be transferred, a second-language writer must have a threshold level of second-language proficiency and an ability to restructure his/her cognitive organization to add

new knowledge of second-language writing and to fit his/her existing knowledge of first-language writing to the new information. As Zamel (1976) supposed, writers can transfer their writing skills across languages only when they are ready to do so. A benefit from first-language writing instruction is expected only when second-language writers reach a threshold level of second-language proficiency and are cognitively mature enough to exercise the transfer.

This chapter reviews related studies on the nature of writing skills, second- and foreign-language writing process, contrastive rhetoric, and the transfer of writing skills across languages. Since writing can be seen as a cognitive problem-solving process, many similarities can be observed between first- and foreign-language writing. If the writer reaches the threshold level of second- or foreign-language proficiency, his/her first-language writing skills transfer to second- or foreign-language writing and contribute to the development of second- or foreign-language writing skills. Contrastive rhetoric, however, assumes the opposite. It postulates that, since writing skills are culturally shaped, writing skills from the writer's first language negatively influence his/her writing in a foreign language.

CHAPTER 3
METHODS AND PROCEDURES

The purpose of this chapter is to describe the methods and procedures for investigating the threshold level of English-language proficiency for doing EFL writing as well as the effects of first-language writing skills and English-language proficiency on EFL writing skills. The present study included two independent variables of the subjects' English-language proficiency and Korean writing skills. To achieve the purpose of the study, the relationships between the independent variables and dependent variable and the effect of the interaction between the independent variables on the dependent variable were studied. This chapter consists of null hypotheses, description of subjects, procedures, measurement instruments, measurement scoring, and data treatments.

Null Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were tested at the .05 significance level.

Ho: There is no relationship between English-language proficiency and EFL writing abilities at all levels of

English-Language Proficiency represented in the subjects' total scores on the Michigan Test.

Ho: There is no relationship between individual English-language skills and EFL writing abilities at all levels of English-language proficiency.

Ho: There is no relationship between Korean and EFL writing abilities at all levels of English-language proficiency.

Ho: There is no relationship between individual Korean and EFL writing abilities at all levels of English-language proficiency.

Description of Subjects

85 Korean college students from five Korean universities, Chonbuk National University, Kunsan National University, Sunchonhyang University, Hannam University, and Hankuk University of Foreign Studies, were drawn as the subjects in this study. The subjects consisted of 53 English education majors, 21 public administration majors, and 11 English majors. 18 males and 67 females participated in the study. The subjects' ages ranged from 18 to 28, 20.75 on average. The subjects consisted of 54 sophomores, 7 juniors, and 24 seniors. Among the original 119 participants in the study, 34 participants who were either absent during the subsequent sessions or did not provide the

requested data, were dropped out of the analysis of the data.

Procedures

This study was conducted for students of five different classes at five different Korean universities. The five Korean universities were selected on the basis of their representativeness of the Korean college student population. The five classes were selected on the basis of class members' representativeness of the Korean college student population, ease in drawing Korean and EFL writing samples, and the instructors' willingness to cooperate in the study. The initial contacts with the instructors were made in person. At the initial contacts, the instructors were told the purpose and the procedures of the study by the researcher. The instructors were then given the letter of consent (see Appendix B) and asked to sign it. The letter to students (see Appendix A) was also given to the instructors at the same time. The instructors were asked to distribute copies to their students and to collect their signatures. One week after obtaining permission to conduct the study from the instructors and students, the study began. The study was conducted during two sessions of two consecutive classes over a two week period.

The Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency was administered to the subjects during the first two hours of the study. The Michigan Test consists of three sections of

grammar, vocabulary, and reading comprehension and 100 multiple-choice questions. The subjects were allowed 75 minutes to answer the questions and the total amount of time spent on administering the test was approximately 90 minutes. The students were instructed to spend 25 minutes on each of the three sections of the test. Before the subjects began to answer the questions in each section, they were instructed on how to solve the questions in the section and provided with an example of the questions.

One week after administering the Michigan Test of English-language Proficiency, the subjects were randomly assigned to two groups. Both groups were given Topic A (see Appendix C), but Group A was instructed to write on the topic in Korean and Group B in English. The subjects were given 45 minutes to write on the topic. During writing, referring to any aid materials such as a dictionary or a grammar book was prohibited. The second writing test was administered during the class session following the first writing test. This time, Groups A and B were given Topic B. Group A wrote in English and Group B in Korean (See Table 1).

Table 1
Language for Each Writing Topic

	Group A	Group B
Topic A	Korean	English
B	English	Korean

The purpose of this language and topic change was to avoid having the second writing become a translation of the first writing, thus confounding the results. Since the subjects were randomly assigned into two groups and they wrote on different topics on different writing occasions, the confounding seemed to be controlled in the present study.

After all writing tests were completed, three graduate students from the Department of Korean Language and Literature at Chonbuk National University were contacted and employed to rate the subjects' Korean writings. Among the three employed raters, two were assigned as raters and the last person was assigned as a mediator for disagreements in scoring between the raters. However, all three persons employed participated in the rater training process described below. The researcher played the role of the trainer of the raters and the mediator. Rater training was based on the procedures in Spandel and Stiggins (1990). The subjects' Korean writings were sampled and categorized as high, middle, and low in their overall proficiency by a Korean writing expert, a faculty member of the Department of Korean Language and Literature at Chonbuk National University. Each rater was given writing samples which represented high-, middle-, and low-levels of writing proficiency. However, they were not given the suggested scores for the papers. They were told to give five points to the best writing, three to the middle, and one to the

weakest. After both raters finished rating each group of three papers, their ratings were compared with each other.

After rating the first set of writings, the raters were given the second set of the three sample writings and asked to compare the second set with the first set. Then they considered the full list of rating categories, paying attention to how each category worked in balance. The suggested scores were given to the raters after they had rated the second set of sample papers. If there was a difference of two or more points from the suggested score, the rater was asked to reread the paper and rethink the scoring carefully. The raters then scored the first set of ten papers on only two categories, ideas and content, and organization, followed by rating the second group of ten papers on four categories, ideas and content, organization, voice, and word choice. The last group of ten papers were scored on all six categories, and the raters finally began to score the rest of writings on all six categories.

The English writings were rated by three native English speakers who had experience in teaching EFL writing, following the same procedures used with the Korean writing scoring. When there was a disagreement in scoring between the raters, the mediator decided the final score. The interrater and intertopic reliability in the Korean and EFL writing test were obtained by using Pearson's correlation coefficient. The interrater reliability was .81 in the Korean writing test and .82 in the EFL writing test. The

intertopic reliability obtained by using the same method was .94 in the Korean writing test and .98 in the EFL writing test.

Measurement Instruments

To evaluate the subjects' English-language proficiency, the Michigan Test of English-language proficiency (Corrigan et al., 1977) was used in the present study. The test consisted of three sections of grammar, vocabulary, and reading comprehension and a total of 100 questions. Each of the grammar and vocabulary sections included 40 questions and the reading comprehension section included 20 questions. The test was designed to assess English-as-a-Foreign-language (EFL) students' English-language proficiency necessary to study in colleges and universities in the United States. The average correlation of the test with academic success in six different undergraduate and graduate programs at the University of Michigan was .51, indicating significant prediction validity of the test. The test scores were also highly correlated with those of the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL), ranging from .914 to .943 measured at four different universities in the United States. The test manual recommended 90 minutes for the entire process of administering the test and 75 minutes for the testees to answer the questions.

Topics for the Korean and EFL writing test were selected on the basis of the subjects' interests and knowledge. Any topic which required knowledge in specific

areas was avoided in the study. One topic for the writing tests asked the subjects to decide whether they supported or opposed building a big factory near their hometowns and to persuade the person who is in a position to influence the decision by writing a letter. The other topic concerned reserving two traffic lanes in certain areas of the city to ease heavy traffic congestion. The subjects were asked to decide whether they supported or opposed the plan and to persuade the same audience by writing a letter. To avoid the confounding that would be caused if the second writing became a translated version of the first writing, one group wrote in Korean and the other in English in the first writing. The languages were reversed for the second writing (see Table 1). The subjects were given 45 minutes to complete each of the Korean and EFL writing tests.

Measurement Scoring

The Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency testing kit includes 20 question sheets and 100 answer sheets, a copy of the manual, and a transparent plastic correct answer sheet. The correct answer sheet was placed on the subjects' answer sheets and the number of correct answers were tallied and summed up for their English-language proficiency scores.

Since the purpose of writing scoring in the study is to assess the subjects' comprehensive writing abilities in an objective way, a scoring procedure which combined analytic and holistic scoring methods was used in the study. Cooper

(1977) broadly defined holistic writing scoring as any scoring system which does not focus on very specific features and which analyzes writing in mathematical ways.

> I am using the term "holistic" to mean any procedure which stops short of enumerating linguistic, rhetorical, or informational features of a piece of writing. Some holistic procedures may specify a number of particular features and even require that each feature be scored separately, but the reader is never required to stop and count or tally incidents of the feature. The reader uses the list of features only as a general guide -a set of reminders, a way of focusing-in reaching a holistic judgment. (p.4)

Spandel and Stiggins (1990) mentioned that by using an analytical scoring system which comprised six or seven elements of writing which were believed to be most important, the tester could satisfactorily diagnose not only students' strengths and weaknesses but also the overall quality of their writing. Although the subjects had been expected to have more difficulty in writing in English than in Korean, due to their limited knowledge of the English language, their writing was scored on the same scoring principles to account for the relationship between their Korean and English writing skills.

Diederich (1974) emphasized the importance of reliability in administering writing tests and contended that reliability could be achieved through analyzing elements of writing which were thought to be important by the readers. In a study conducted by Educational Testing

Services (ETS), writings of 300 college freshmen were rated by 60 raters from six different professional fields. The study identified eight elements which at least six raters believed to be most important in writing: Ideas, organization, wording, flavor, usage, punctuation, spelling, and handwriting. Spandel and Stiggins (1990) proposed a writing scoring system which included six categories: Ideas and content, organization, voice, word choice, sentence fluency, and conventions. Since Spandel and Stiggins' work seemed to be more balanced than Diederich's, Spandel and Stiggins's work (see Appendix E) was used to establish scoring principles for the Korean and English writing test in the present study.

Spandel and Stiggins (1990) suggested that each category should be as distinct as possible from the other categories in order to prevent raters from confusing one category with another. Spandel and Stiggins' scoring system used a five-point rating scale in which scores were not discrete points, but existed along a continuum, which indicated that one score was relatively better or worse than another. One point indicated that few, if any, strengths in the category were evident. Two points indicated that weaknesses began to outweigh strengths. Three points indicated that there was a balance between strengths and weaknesses. Four points indicated that strengths began to outweigh weaknesses. Five points indicated that strengths were dominant over weaknesses. Spandel and Stiggins

suggested that there might be a strong 3 (3+) or a weak 3 (3-), which could be a basis for the argument that in assessment a one-point difference might still be regarded as agreement.

In contrast to Spandel and Stiggins' major purpose in developing the scoring system, feedback rather than formal assessment, the purpose of writing scoring in the study was to assess the subjects' overall writing abilities, so scores from each category were summed up to indicate the subjects' overall writing abilities. Since ideas and content and organization of writing were believed to be more important than the other elements, as Diedrich (1977) established, scores on the category of ideas and content and organization were doubled to make a perfect score of ten points in each categories. The perfect total score of each writing test was 40 points.

Data Treatments

The present study was designed to examine the threshold level of English-language proficiency for doing EFL writing as well as the relationship between English-language proficiency and EFL writing skills and between Korean and EFL writing skills. Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficients were used to examine the relationships. To investigate the effect of the interaction between the independent variables on the dependent variable, the subjects were divided into groups based on their Michigan Test scores. The correlation coefficients between the

English-language proficiency and EFL writing scores for the divided groups made it possible to identify the threshold level of English-language proficiency for doing EFL writing.

The correlation coefficient was used to study the magnitude of association between the dependent and independent variables. In investigating the relationship between English-language proficiency and English writing skills, the correlation coefficients between the scores on each section of the Michigan Test and the EFL writing test scores were studied to understand how each specific English-language skill was related to EFL writing skills. In the same manner as the subjects' Korean and English writings were scored on the six categories, the present study was able to show whether the subjects' Korean and EFL writing skills were related to each other in each area of writing skills.

The reviewed studies of the relationship between English-language proficiency and EFL writing skills hypothesized the theory that increases in English-language proficiency beyond a certain point were not closely related to the improvement of ESL or EFL writing skills. As a way to investigate the threshold level of English-language proficiency for doing EFL writing, the subjects were grouped according to their Michigan Test scores. The scores of the first group ranged from the lowest score on the test, 21 points, to the highest score, 90 points. The scores of the next group ranged from 31 to 90, with a 10-point increase in

the lowest score of the group. In this manner, the subjects were divided into six groups with 10-point increases in the lowest score of each group. Then, the correlation coefficients between the Michigan Test scores and the EFL writing test scores for the subjects whose Michigan Test scores were at or above the minimum point of a certain group were calculated to reveal the threshold level, the minimum level of English-language proficiency for doing effective EFL writing. For example, to examine whether or not the threshold level began at 61 points in the Michigan Test, the correlation coefficient between the Michigan Test and the EFL writing test score for those who scored 61 or more points was calculated. After the threshold level was identified, the subjects were divided into two groups, one whose Michigan Test scores were below the threshold and the other above it. The difference in the mean scores of the EFL writing test between the groups was tested by using one-way analysis of variance.

The relationships described above were further examined by using multiple regression analysis. Multiple regression analysis was used to predict the dependent variable by the combination of the independent variables. The relationship between the dependent variable and the independent variables in the study could be summarized in the following formula.

$$Y = a + b_1X_1 + b_2X_2$$

The symbol "a" is an intercept which implies the value of the dependent variable when the value of the combination of the independent variables equals zero; "b"s are partial regression coefficients which show the relationship between the dependent variable and one of the independent variables while the value of the other independent variable is held constant. Since the value of the partial regression coefficient is decided by the variance of each independent variable, the variance needs to be equalized to obtain standardized partial regression coefficient (β). The "x"s indicate scores of the independent variables. The above equation tells us that a certain degree of the variance in the dependent variable is explained by the combination of the independent variables in the study.

Multiple correlation coefficient (R) allows us to estimate the magnitude of association between the dependent variable and the best linear combination of the independent variables. Like a squared correlation coefficient (r^2), a squared multiple correlation coefficient (R^2) allows us to estimate how much variance of the dependent variable can be accounted for by the combination of the independent variables. As the subjects were divided into two groups at the threshold level in the examination of the correlation coefficients, multiple regression analysis was conducted for

the two groups. Then, one group's results from the multiple regression analysis were compared to the other groups'.

CHAPTER 4
RESULTS

The results of the present study are presented in this chapter. Korean college students' EFL writing skills are explained in their relation to English-language proficiency and Korean writing skills. Results from the correlation and multiple regression analysis studies are provided and analyzed as related to the hypotheses stated in the previous chapter. This chapter is divided into four parts: Relationship between English-language proficiency and EFL Writing Skills, Relationship between Korean and EFL Writing Skills, Multiple Regression Analysis of the Variables, and Summaries and Conclusions.

Relationship between English-Language Proficiency and EFL Writing Skills

The mean score of the Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency for all 85 subjects in this study was 45.11 out of the perfect score of 100. The scores ranged from 21 to 90. Since there were a number of different forms in the test and each form had a different level of difficulty, the testing manual provided the examiner with the equated scores for the interpretation of the scores of the different forms. Form P was used in the study to investigate the subjects'

English-language proficiency. The raw score of 45 in the form was equivalent to 64 in the equated score scale. According to the testing manual, the score could be interpreted as not proficient enough to take any humanities or social sciences courses in either undergraduate or graduate programs. In the fields of engineering, mathematics, and scientific disciplines, which depend heavily on laboratory work, the score was one-point short of the score with which the testee could take a third up to a half academic load with special intensive English instruction (10 hours per week). The mean score of the whole subjects' EFL writing test scores was 21.76 out of the perfect score of 40. The value of the correlation coefficient between the subjects' English-language proficiency and EFL writing test scores was .67, which was significant at .05 significance level.

Since the Michigan Test consisted of three sections of grammar, vocabulary, and reading comprehension, the examination of the relationships between the subjects' scores on each section of the test and the EFL writing test scores provided information about the relationships between the subjects' individual English-language skills and their EFL writing skills. The mean score of the grammar section was 21.3 out of the perfect score of 40, ranging from 7 to 38. The mean score of the vocabulary section was 16.4 out

of the perfect score of 40, ranging from 6 to 39. The mean score of the reading comprehension section was 8.89 out of the perfect score of 20, ranging from 3 to 17. The correlation coefficients between the subjects' scores on each section of the Michigan Test and the EFL writing test scores were .65 for the grammar, .55 for the vocabulary, and .56 for the reading comprehension section. All of the correlation coefficients were significant at the .05 level.

Table 2
Correlations between the Scores of Each Section of the Michigan Test and the EFL Writing Test Scores

	Mean	SD	r	p
Grammar	2.12	6.72	.65*	.00
Vocabulary	16.4	6.76	.55*	.00
Reading Comprehension	8.88	3.60	.56*	.00

* $p<.05$

To investigate whether or not the significant relationship is maintained for the subjects at the different levels of English-language proficiency, the subjects were divided into six groups according to their Michigan Test scores. Table 3 presents the mean scores on the Michigan Test and the EFL writing test by each English-language proficiency group.

Table 3
Mean Scores of Michigan Test and EFL Writing Test by Each English-Language Proficiency Group

Group	Michigan Test Mean	EFL Writing Mean	N
21-30	26.36	14.79	14
31-40	35.71	17.24	21
41-50	45.08	23.2	25
51-60	55.22	27.5	9
61-70	63.6	27.95	10
over 71	80.0	28.92	6

The subjects' EFL writing test scores increased in proportion to the Michigan Test scores until the Michigan Test scores reached 51 points. The increase of the writing scores, however, sharply slowed for the subjects who scored 51 or more points. From the group whose Michigan Test scores ranged from 21 to 30 to the group from 41 to 50, the group mean score on the Michigan Test increased by 18.72 points and the mean score of the EFL writing test increased by 8.41 points. In contrast, for the three high scoring groups on the Michigan Test, while the mean score of the Michigan Test increased by 24.78 points, there was only a 1.41 point increase in the EFL writing test. Therefore, it seemed that the subjects whose Michigan Test scores were 51 or more points were less influenced by English-language skills in doing EFL writing than those who scored less than 51 points. The raw score of 51 points was equivalent to the equated score of 69 points. According to the Michigan Test manual, the equated score of 69 points was one-point short of indicating readiness to take a quarter to a third of the

normal academic load plus special intensive English instruction (10 hours per week) in liberal arts and education undergraduate programs or readiness to take up to a half the normal academic load plus special English instruction in the fields of engineering, mathematics, and other scientific fields that heavily depends on laboratory work. The score was well below the minimum score for admission to the University of Michigan, which was 80 points in the equated score scale. There were only eight students who scored more than the minimum admission score in the present study. The equated score of 69 points, therefore, did not seem to indicate high English-language proficiency. This trend is clearly seen in Figure 3. Caution is necessary in examining the figure, in that the perfect score of the EFL writing test is not 30 points as presented in the figure, but 40 points. The portion from 30 to 40 points are not shown in the figure, due to non-existence of the group whose mean EFL writing test score was over 30 points.

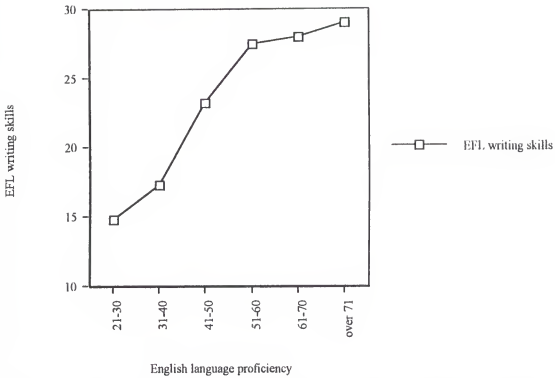


Figure 3. The increase of EFL writing test scores by the increase of the Michigan Test scores

This decreased influence of English-language proficiency on EFL writing skills was further evidenced from the correlation study, in which the subjects were divided into two groups, one group who scored less than 51 points and another who scored 51 or more points on the Michigan Test. For the low English-language proficiency group who scored less than 51 points on the Michigan Test, the correlation coefficient between the Michigan Test and EFL writing test scores was .59, which was significant at the .05 level. In contrast, for the high English-language proficiency group whose Michigan Test scores were 51 or more

points, the correlation coefficient was .15 and not significant at the .05 level.

Table 4
Correlation Coefficients between the Michigan Test and EFL Writing Test Scores for the High and Low Scoring Groups on the Michigan Test

	Michigan Test Mean	EFL Writing Test Mean	r	p	N
below 51	37.45	19.15	.59*	.00	60
51 or above	64.52	28.02	.15	.47	25

* $p < .05$

Furthermore, the correlation coefficients between the subjects' scores on each section of the Michigan Test and the EFL writing scores showed that, while the scores on all three sections of the Michigan Test were significantly correlated with the EFL writing test scores for the low English-language proficiency group, there was no significant relationship for the high English-language proficiency group. The correlation coefficients and significant probabilities are presented in Table 5.

Table 5
Correlation Coefficients between Each Section of the Michigan Test Scores and the EFL Writing Test Scores for the High and Low Michigan Test Scoring Group

	r		p	
Section	Low	High	Low	High
Grammar	.56*	.06	.00	.78
Vocabulary	.37*	.09	.003	.66
Reading	.31*	.21	.02	.31

* $p < .o5$

For the low English-language proficiency group, the correlation coefficient between the scores on the grammar section and the EFL writing test scores was .56, which was significant at the .05 level. The correlation coefficient between the scores on the vocabulary section and the EFL writing test scores was .36, which was significant at the .05 level. And the correlation coefficient between the scores on the reading comprehension section and the EFL writing scores was .31, which was significant at the .05 level. In contrast to the low-scoring group on the Michigan Test, none of the correlation coefficients between the scores on each section of the Michigan Test and the EFL writing test scores was significant for the high-scoring group.

In summary, the results indicated that the relationship between the subjects' English-language proficiency and EFL writing skills varied depending on their English-language proficiency level. The relationship was not significant for the subjects who scored more than 51 points on the Michigan Test. In contrast, the relationship was significant for those who scored less than 51 points. The correlation coefficients between the scores on each section of the Michigan Test and the EFL writing test scores showed the same results.

Relationship between Korean and EFL Writing Skills

The mean score of the Korean writing test for the entire subject group was 20.06 out of the perfect score of 40. The scores ranged from 11 to 33 points. The mean score for the high English-language proficiency group was 20.64 and that for the low English-language proficiency group was 19.82. One-way ANOVA for the difference in the mean scores indicated that the difference was not significant ($F(1, 83) = .80$, $p < .37$). The correlation coefficients between the Korean and EFL writing test scores for the entire subject group was .18, which was not significant at the .05 level. The correlation coefficient for the low English-language proficiency group was .05, which was not significant. The correlation coefficient for the high English-language proficiency group was .55, which was significant at the .05 level. The correlation coefficient suggested that once the writer reached the adequate level of foreign-language proficiency, first-language writing skills were closely related to foreign-language writing skills. Table 6 summarizes the results.

Table 6
Correlation Coefficients between the Korean and EFL Writing Test Scores for the Three Different Michigan Test Scoring Groups

Group	r	p
Overall	.18	.10
Low	.05	.69
High	.55*	.00

* $p < .05$

However, close examination of the results revealed another characteristic of foreign language writing. Once the subjects reached 41 or more points on the Michigan Test, their Korean writing abilities began to be significantly correlated with the EFL writing abilities. The correlation coefficient between the Korean and EFL writing test scores was .40 and significant at the .05 level. This suggests that the subjects' EFL writing abilities began to be influenced by their Korean writing abilities before they were free from the constraint of English-language use. It also suggests that there was a certain range in the subjects' interlanguage development, in which their EFL writing was influenced by both English-language proficiency and Korean writing abilities at the same time.

Since the subjects' Korean and EFL writings were rated on the same scoring principles, including six scoring categories, it was possible to examine the relationships between their Korean and EFL writing skills in each of the

scoring categories. First, for the group of all 85 subjects, weak but significant relationships between the Korean and EFL writing test scores were found in the categories of organization, voice, and word choice. The relationships for the categories of ideas and content, sentence fluency, and conventions were not significant. The correlation coefficient for the organization category was .23 and significant at the .05 level. The correlation coefficient for the voice category was .22 and significant. The correlation coefficient for the word choice category was .31 and significant.

For the low English-language proficiency group, there were very small or negative correlation coefficients for the ideas and content, organization, sentence fluency, and conventions categories. Only the relationship in the word choice category was significant at the .05 level. The correlation coefficients for the high English-language proficiency group were far higher than those for the low English-language proficiency group in all of the six scoring categories. The correlation coefficients for the organization and word-choice categories were significant at the .05 level. The correlation coefficient for the organization category was .61 and significant at the .05 level. The correlation coefficient for the word-choice category was .47 and significant. However, the correlation

coefficients for the ideas and content, voice, sentence fluency, and conventions categories were not significant. Table 7 presents the correlation coefficients and significant probabilities for the low and high English-language proficiency group.

Table 7
Correlation Coefficients between the Korean and EFL Writing Test Scores on the Six Writing Scoring Categories for the Low and High English-language proficiency Groups

	r		p	
Scoring Categories	Low	High	Low	High
Ideas and Content	.03	.26	.80	.21
Organization	.04	.61*	.75	.001
Voice	.20	.40	.12	.05
Sentence Fluency	-.09	.32	.49	.12
Word Choice	.27*	.47*	.04	.02
Conventions	-.005	.26	.97	.21

* $p < .05$

In summary, the relationship between the Korean and EFL writing test scores were greatly influenced by the Michigan Test scores. The correlation coefficient for the low English-language proficiency group was not significant at the .05 level. However, the correlation coefficient for the high English-language proficiency group was significant. Eventually, the correlation coefficient began to be significant for those who scored 41 or more points, indicating that both the Michigan Test and Korean writing

test scores were significantly correlated with the EFL writing test scores in the range of 41 to 50 points on the Michigan Test. The correlation coefficients between the Korean and EFL writing test scores on each of the six writing scoring categories also depended on the Michigan Test scores.

Multiple Regression Analysis of the Variables

Stepwise multiple regression analysis was conducted to investigate the relationships between the dependent variable and the independent variables. The purpose of using multiple regression analysis is to make a prediction of the dependent variable by a set of the independent variables (Shavelson, 1996). Table 8 presents that the relationship between the dependent variable and the combination of the independent variables were systematic at the .05 level.

Table 8
Multiple Regression Analysis for the Entire Subject Group

	df	SS	MS	F	p<F
Model	3	2165.83	721.94	24.70*	.00
Error	81	2367.48	29.23		
C Total	84	4533.31			

* $p < .05$

Partial regression coefficient (b) indicates the relationship between the dependent variable and one of the independent variables, controlling for the other independent

variable. Since the magnitude of the partial regression coefficient is influenced by the variance of each independent variable, standardized partial regression coefficient (β) needs to be calculated, which shows the partial regression coefficient after the variance is standardized. The standard error of the partial regression coefficient provides an estimate of how much the coefficient varies from one sample to another. Table 9 presents the information about the multiple linear regression for the entire subject group.

Table 9
Multiple Linear Regression for the Entire Subject Group

	B	SE B	β	T	p<F
English-language proficiency	.32	.04	.66	8.10*	.00
Korean Writing	.13	.17	.07	.73	.46
(constant)	1.28	4.42		.36	.72

* $P < .05$

The partial regression coefficients between the Michigan Test and EFL writing test scores and between the Korean and EFL writing test scores are .32 and .13 respectively. The comparison of the two coefficients suggested that the variance of the dependent variable was more dependent on the independent variable of the Michigan Test scores. In addition, only the variance of the Michigan Test scores were

significantly related to that of the EFL writing test scores.

Multiple correlation coefficient (R) enables us to estimate the magnitude of the relationship between the dependent variable and the best linear combination of the independent variables (Shavelson, 1996). Like a correlation coefficient (r), a squared value of multiple correlation coefficient gives us information regarding how large a portion of the dependent variable can be predicted by the independent variables.

Table 10
Multiple correlation coefficients for the entire subject group

Variable	R	R^2	adjusted R^2
Michigan Test + Korean Writing	.68	.46	.45
Michigan Test	.67	.45	.44
Korean Writing	.18	.03	.02

The multiple correlation coefficient for the combination of the independent variables was .68 and its squared value was .46. The adjusted R^2 for the estimate of the population was .45. The R^2 for the combination of the independent variables indicated that 46% of the dependent variable could be predicted by the combination of the independent variables. Individually, the Michigan Test scores could predict 45% of the EFL writing test scores and

the Korean writing test scores could predict 3% of the dependent variable. It indicated that the Michigan Test scores were far better predictors of the EFL writing scores than the Korean writing test scores for the entire subject group.

The portion of the dependent variable which is explained uniquely by an independent variable without interactions with the other independent variables is calculated by the equation below:

$$R^2_{change} = R^2 - R^2_{(i)}$$

$R^2_{(i)}$: The square of multiple correlation coefficient when all independent variables except the *i*th are in the equation

43% of the dependent variable could be uniquely predicted by the Michigan Test scores alone and 1% by the Korean writing test scores. 2% of the dependent variable could be predicted by the interaction of the two independent variables.

The relationship between the dependent variable and the combination of the independent variables was significant at the .05 level for the low English-language proficiency group. The source table is presented in Table 11.

Table 11
Multiple Regression Analysis for the Low English-Language Proficiency Group

Source	df	SS	MS	F	p<F
Model	2	921.44	307.15	23.1543*	.00
Error	56	1641.21	29.31		
C Total	58	2562.65			

* $p < .05$

The partial regression coefficients for the independent variables of the Michigan Test and Korean writing test scores were .49 and .09 respectively. The partial correlation coefficient for the English-language proficiency variable was significant at the .05 level. That for the Korean writing test scores was not significant. It indicated that there was a systematic relationship between the variance of the EFL writing test scores and the Michigan Test scores. Table 12 presents the information related to the multiple linear regression analysis for the low English-language proficiency group.

Table 12
Multiple Linear Regression for the Low English-Language Proficiency Group

	B	SE B	β	T	p<F
English-language proficiency	.49	.09	.59	5.56*	.00
Korean Writing	.09	.17	.07	.73	.46
(constant)	1.28	4.42		.36	.72

* $p < .05$

The multiple correlation coefficients indicated that, while the Michigan Test scores predicted a considerable portion of the dependent variable, little prediction could be possible from the Korean writing test scores for the low English-language proficiency group. The combination of the independent variables could predict 35.338% of the EFL writing test scores. The Michigan Test scores predicted 35.014% of the dependent variable. The Korean writing test scores could predict 2.672% percent of the dependent variable. However, the adjusted value R^2 for the Korean writing scores was -.0145, indicating that it negatively predicted the dependent variable. Since the value was very small, it did not seem to have a special meaning for the study. 32.6% of the dependent variable could be predicted by the English-language proficiency test scores alone, .3% by the Korean writing test scores, and 2.1% by the interaction between the independent variables. Table 15 presents the multiple correlation coefficients between the combinations of the independent variables and the dependent variable and between each independent variable and the dependent variable for the low English-language proficiency group.

Table 13
Multiple Correlation Coefficients for the Low English-Language Proficiency Group

Variable	R	R^2	adjusted R^2
Michigan Test + Korean Writing	.594	.353	.331
Michigan Test	.592	.350	.339
Korean Writing	.052	.027	-.015

In contrast to the low English-language proficiency group, the correlation coefficient between the Michigan Test and EFL writing test scores was no longer significant for the high English-language proficiency group. Instead, the correlation coefficient between the Korean and EFL writing test scores became significant at the .05 level. The relationship between the dependent variable and the combination of the independent variables was systematic at the .05 level. The source table is presented in Table 14.

Table 14
Multiple Regression Analysis for the High English-Language Proficiency Group

Source	df	SS	MS	F	p<F
Model	2	189.62	94.81	5.31*	.01
Error	22	392.62	17.85		
C Total	58	582.24			

* $p < .05$

The partial regression coefficients of the Michigan Test and Korean writing test scores were .06 and .83 respectively, indicating that, while the partial correlation coefficient for the Korean writing test scores showed a systematic relationship with the variance of the dependent variable, the Michigan Test scores showed little relationship with the dependent variable. Table 15 provides the related information about the multiple linear regression for the high English-language proficiency group.

Table 15
Multiple Linear Regression for the High English-Language Proficiency Group

	B	β	T	p<F
English-language proficiency	.06	.14	.83	.41
Korean Writing	.83	.55	3.14*	.005
(constant)	6.58	.87	.39	

* $p < .05$

The multiple correlation coefficient for the combination of the independent variables indicated that 32.6% of the dependent variable could be predicted by the combination of the independent variables for the low English-language proficiency group. The prediction of the subjects' EFL writing test scores from their Michigan Test scores became insignificant for the high English-language proficiency group. The Michigan Test scores could predict

only 2.2% of the EFL writing test scores. In contrast, the Korean writing test scores could predict 30.5% of the dependent variable. After removing the interaction between the independent variables, the Michigan Test alone could predict 2.1% of the EFL writing test scores. 30.4% of the dependent variable could be predicted uniquely by the Korean writing test scores. Table 18 presents the multiple correlation coefficients for the high English-language proficiency group.

Table 16
Multiple Correlation Coefficients for the High English-Language Proficiency Group

Variable	R	R^2	adjusted R^2
Michigan Test + Korean Writing	.57	.326	.26
Michigan Test	.15	.022	-.02
Korean Writing	.55	.305	.27

In summary, the multiple regression analysis for the relationships between the dependent variable and the independent variables generally confirmed the relationships revealed by the correlation coefficients. For the subjects who scored less than 51 points on the Michigan Test, the English-language proficiency had the significant predictive power of the dependent variable. The Michigan Test alone could predict 35% of the EFL writing test scores. In

contrast, for the high English-language proficiency group, the Korean writing test scores became a significant predictor of the EFL writing test scores. The Michigan Test scores became insignificant in predicting the EFL writing test scores. While 30.4% of the dependent variable could be predicted by the Korean writing test scores alone, only 2.1% could be predicted by the Michigan Test scores.

Summary and Conclusion

For the subjects who scored less than 51 points on the Michigan Test, the correlation coefficient between the Michigan Test and the EFL writing test scores was significant at the .05 level, indicating that English-language skills were critical in the subjects' doing EFL writing for the low English-language proficiency group. In contrast, for the subjects who scored 51 or more points, the correlation coefficient was not significant. Instead, the correlation coefficient between the Korean and EFL writing test scores became significant. It also should be noted that the Korean writing test scores began to be significantly correlated with the EFL writing test scores when the subjects reached 41 or more points on the Michigan Test. This showed that, for the subjects who scored between 41 and 50 points on the Michigan Test, both English-language proficiency and writing skills were significantly correlated with the EFL writing abilities.

The correlation coefficients between the subjects' scores on each of the three sections of the Michigan Test and their EFL writing test scores indicated that each English-language skills were significantly correlated with the EFL writing test scores for the low English-language proficiency group. The correlation coefficients between the Korean and EFL writing test scores on each of the six writing scoring categories showed that the subjects' Korean writing abilities were much more closely related to their EFL writing scoring category for the high English-language proficiency group. Stepwise multiple regression analysis showed that, while English-language proficiency was a major predictor of EFL writing abilities for the low proficiency group, writing skills were a major predictor for the high proficiency group.

CHAPTER 5
DISCUSSION

The implications of the present study are presented in this chapter. The first part includes a review of the previous chapters. The second part includes the context of the study. The third part includes an interpretation of the results of the data analysis. The fourth part includes the pedagogical implications of the present study. The limitations of the present study and suggestions for future research are presented in the last part.

Review of the Previous Chapters

It was stated in Chapter 1 that knowledge of the threshold level of English-language proficiency for EFL writing had a special meaning for EFL writing research and pedagogy. Particularly, the threshold level is regarded as critically important because only when the teacher knows the level of language skills needed to cope with a given writing task, can he/she provide appropriate writing instruction. Zamel (1976) identified the threshold level as the level which prepares writers to create meaning. EFL writing skills were viewed as consisting of both language and writing skills. Since writing skills were defined as a process of

cognitive problem-solving (Flower & Hayes, 1981), they were hypothesized in the present study to transfer across languages. Another rationale came from studies of second- and foreign-language writing process. These studies showed that there were many similarities between first- and second- or foreign-language writers' behaviors. Chapter 1 concluded with presenting definitions of important terms.

In Chapter 2, studies related to the present study were reviewed. Studies reviewed in the first part defined writing as a process of creating meaning and cognitive problem-solving. The reviewed studies indicated that writing is a process by which writers explore and clarify their intended meanings. During writing process, a writer is required to solve rhetorical problems by using cognitive strategies. Second- and Foreign-language writing process were reviewed in the second part. The reviewed studies showed that first- and second- or foreign-language writing processes were very similar in many aspects. Poor first-language writers' behaviors were similar to those of poor second- or foreign-language writers and good first-language writers' behaviors were similar to those of good second- or foreign-language writers. The reviewed studies suggested that second- or foreign-language writers' behaviors were decided by their writing ability development rather than by

linguistic differences between the first and the second or foreign language.

Contrastive rhetoric and the criticisms against it were reviewed in the third part. Contrastive rhetoric theory assumes that writing is strongly influenced by different thought patterns derived from different cultures, so that ways to organize writing are different in each culture. Contrastive rhetoric strongly suggests the negative transfer of writing skills from the first to the second or foreign language. The major criticism against contrastive rhetoric was that, unlike language skills, writing skills are not acquired naturally but are learned in school. Critics also theorized that there might be a universal rhetoric which applies to every language. The last part of the chapter reviewed studies which showed the theoretical and empirical evidences of the transfer of writing skills across languages. The reviewed studies indicated that a certain level of second- or foreign-language proficiency is a necessary condition to transfer first-language writing skills to second- or foreign-language writing.

Chapter 3 discussed the methods and procedures of the present study. This study was designed to include the dependent variable of the subjects' EFL writing skills and the two independent variables of their English-language proficiency and first-language, Korean, writing skills. To

measure the subjects' English-language proficiency, the Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency was used. Two writing tests were administered to the subjects to investigate their Korean and EFL writing skills. The subjects' writings in both Korean and EFL were rated based on Spandel and Stiggins' scoring principles (1990). The rater training was also based on Spandel and Stiggins' work. Pearson's correlation coefficients and multiple regression analysis were used for the analysis of the obtained data in the present study.

Chapter 4 presented the results of the data analysis. The obtained data revealed that there was an interaction between language and writing skills. For the subjects who showed low English-language proficiency in the Michigan Test, while the correlation coefficient between the Korean and EFL writing test scores was not significant, the English-language proficiency was significantly correlated with the EFL writing skills. In contrast, for the subjects who showed high English-language proficiency, while the relationship between the English-language and EFL writing skills became weak and insignificant, the Korean writing skills were significantly correlated with the EFL writing skills. The results of multiple regression analysis between the dependent variable and the independent variables confirmed the results of the correlation coefficients. The

results of the correlation coefficients between the scores on each section of the Michigan Test and the EFL writing scores, as well as between the Korean and EFL writing test scores on each of the six writing scoring categories, identified the effect of the interaction between the subjects' English-language proficiency and Korean writing skills on the EFL writing skills.

Context of the Study

This part is to review the context of the present study before full discussion of the results. The understanding of the context not only provides deep insight into the results, but also helps interpret them more properly. First, English education in Korea is discussed in order to understand the subjects' EFL learning background. Second, the subjects' learning of Korean and EFL writing is reviewed in relation to the results presented in this study.

English has been a major subject since the introduction of modern education system in Korea, which dates back to late 19th century. The importance of teaching English has been well reflected in Korean education system. English has been one of critical subjects, which can decide students' academic success. For example, in the college entrance examination, English has been assigned 80 points out of the total 400 points for the last four years. When it is considered that one fifth of the total score is assigned to

English, it is the subject on which they must spend their major effort for academic success.

English is given the most instruction time in Korean secondary-school curriculum. It is taught five to seven hours a week in the school. In college, English is also considered to be an important subject in the curriculum, regardless of students' majors. In Ryu's study (1991), Korean college students were required to finish at least eight to twelve credit hours during their freshman and sophomore years. In recent years, the importance of English has been realized again by the central government, and it has decided to introduce English as a regular subject to the elementary-school curriculum.

Despite great effort put forward by those involved in English education in Korea, as the present study showed, Korean students' achievement level in learning English is disappointingly low. There are two major reasons for this. First as suggested in Ryu's study (1991), an English classroom in Korean secondary school is usually crowded with more than 40 students. This crowded classroom is one of the main reasons for the teachers to give up their effort to try other teaching methods than translation-grammar method. Second, there is strong washback effect from the college entrance examination to English education in secondary school. As the examination is believed to be the most

important event in one's academic career, the secondary-school curriculum is adapted to prepare for the examination. Furthermore, the textbooks hardly provides the context for communicative activities in which the learned skills are utilized for developing students' communicative skills. Therefore, although the subjects in the present study have learned English for more than six years in secondary school and college, it seemed that, since they had not had opportunities to practice their learned grammar skills in communicative context, the skills had not been integrated into their linguistic repertoire.

It is also worth reviewing the subjects' Korean and EFL writing learning history to interpret the results more adequately. In order to investigate the history, the survey which asked the subjects their learning history of Korean and EFL writing, was administered after the completion of the writing tests. In the survey, they were asked whether or not they had received Korean and EFL writing instruction, how long they had received the instructions, and what type of writing instruction they had been. The review of the subjects' Korean writing learning history is discussed first, followed by that of the EFL writing learning.

Although Korean composition is not an independent subjects, most subjects, 73 subjects out of the total 85 subjects, answered that they had received Korean writing

instruction during Korean language arts classes in secondary school. However, many answered that the instruction had lasted for only one or two years. 44 subjects replied that they had received the instruction for either one or two hours a week. Half the subjects who answered they had received the instruction, said that they had been allowed to write freely on their own topics.

In contrast to what Eggington (1987) assumed about Korean rhetoric, the purpose of the instruction is to develop students' ability to communicate their ideas in a clear, effective manner. For example, Korean composition has been added to the college entrance examination as a special subject in recent years. The composition examination usually asks students to present their views about the given topic in the examination and to support the views with evidence. The following is English translation of a sample question one of the prestigious universities in Korea provided for its prospective applicants:

> Scientific and technical development brings many benefits to human life. But there are social problems which are caused by the development of technology. The following shows disorder when the existing social values cannot solve the problems. Refer to the following example and present an answer to the problems with supporting evidence (Yonsei University, 1996).

The question above clearly shows that Korean composition instruction is based on principles of western rhetoric. In

the question, students are asked to state their opinions clearly in the beginning of the composition and develop them with supporting evidence. Furthermore, another purpose of introducing the composition examination is to develop students' logical abilities, which are supposed to be represented in their writings.

57 subjects answered that they had received Korean composition instruction in college. All of the 57 subjects answered that they had received the instruction for either one or two semesters. 47 subjects answered that they had received the instruction for either two or three hours a week. Half the subjects answered that they had been allowed to write freely on their own topics, indicating that many writing activities had been controlled even in college composition classes.

Although a small number of the subjects answered that they had received English composition instruction in secondary school. However, it seemed that they misunderstood what the researcher intended to ask in the question. In the question, the researcher asked the subjects whether or not they had received the instruction which had focused on creating meaning and text, but not producing individual sentences. The subjects who replied that they had received the instruction, might confuse grammar exercises with writing exercises.

Since many subjects belonged to either English or English education department, they had had opportunities to receive English composition instruction in college. 69 subjects answered that they had received the instruction in college. In the next question, 49 subjects answered that the had attended the classes for a year and 11 subjects for a semester, indicating that most subjects had received English composition instruction for less than a year. Besides, most subjects answered that they had received the instruction for two to three hours a week. 21 subjects answered that they had received the instruction for two hours a week and 43 subjects for three hours a week. 48 subjects said that their writing had been controlled by their instructors. Their answers implied that their writing exercises had been rather limited to what the instructor had asked of them.

Discussion of the Results

Hypothesis 1 and 3

Threshold Level of English-Language Proficiency for EFL Writing

This study identified two important points along the continuum of the subjects' interlanguage development. The first point was where writing skills from the subjects' Korean writing began to be significantly correlated with their EFL writing skills. The second point was where

English-language proficiency began to be insignificantly correlated with the EFL writing skills and instead, the writing skills became an important factor in determining the quality of the EFL writing. The present study indicated that the two phenomena did not take place at one point, but, rather, at two different points in the continuum.

As the subjects' writings were scored on the six different categories, including linguistic and non-linguistic elements of writing, in the present study, it became clear that, if the goal of EFL writing instruction is to teach students how to produce meaningful and communicative text, the instruction of writing skills should be integrated into the curriculum. The questions are when and how much writing skill instruction should be added to the curriculum. The answer the present study suggests is that writing-skill instruction should begin to be provided at the point where writing skills begin to be significantly correlated with EFL writing skills. The present study identified a score of 41 points on the Michigan Test as the correct beginning point for writing-skill instruction.

When the Michigan Test scores reached 51 points, the subjects' English-language skills were no longer significantly correlated with their EFL writing skills. For the subjects who scored 51 or more points, additional English-language instruction seemed to be of little help in

improving their EFL writing skills. From that point on, it seemed that the focus of EFL writing instruction should be on teaching students writing skills and the role of language instruction should be supplementary. The writers were ready for developing higher-level writing skills rather than merely producing correct forms of English language.

This finding agreed with what many second- and foreign-language writing studies found regarding the relationship between the language proficiency and writing abilities. First, as Eisterhold (1990), Silva (1993), and Zamel (1976) suggested that second- or foreign-language proficiency plays an important role only until the writer reaches a certain level of the language proficiency, the subjects' English-language proficiency was significantly correlated with their writing skills only until their English-language proficiency reached 51 points on the Michigan Test. Second, process-oriented second- and foreign-language writing studies discovered that the writer's writing behaviors were similar to those of first-language writers and their writing behaviors were mainly governed by writing abilities, rather than the language proficiency (Arndt, 1987; Chelala, 1981; Hall, 1990; Raimes, 1985; Zamel, 1983). This study also presented the same results with the process-oriented studies. When the subjects scored 51 or more points on the Michigan Test in this study, their EFL writing skills were

significantly correlated with the Korean writing test scores. This result also confirms Cummins' threshold level hypothesis in which he supposed that, once a second-language learner was given proper exposure to second-language inputs, his/her language skills transferred from first to second language. In the study, when the subjects' English-language proficiency reached 51 points on the Michigan Test, the writing skills transferred from the Korean writing were significantly correlated with the EFL writing skills.

This ceiling of the subjects' EFL writing test scores in relation to their Michigan Test scores can be explained with the following two reasons. First, while the Michigan Test focused on assessing the subjects' English-language abilities in a sentence level, the writing test asked them more than writing a sentence. In the Michigan Test, 80 points out of the total 100 points were assigned to the grammar and vocabulary sections. The grammatical and lexical knowledge represented in the scores on the two sections might be useful for producing a sentence, but not a text. Writing is to create a text in which each sentence should be organized in an orderly manner in order to create a clear and meaningful text. Flower and Hayes (1981) focused on the skills beyond that which merely produce a sentence. As a writer proceeds in writing, he/she needs to look at the writing in terms of the whole text. In

Bereiter's model of writing ability development (1980), the subjects who scored 51 or more points was believed to be in the higher stages than the associative stage, so the skills to solve rhetorical problems other than mere linguistic skills to produce a sentence determine the writer's abilities. On the contrary, those who scored less than 51 points on the Michigan Test, was believed to be in the associative stage. They were experiencing a considerable amount of difficulty in producing a sentence. For them, the improvement of English-language skills contributed to the development of the abilities to produce a sentence. In turn, this increased ability to produce a sentence might be significantly correlated with their EFL writing test scores.

The second reason for the ceiling could be found in the writing tasks of the present study. Piazza (1987) mentioned that a writer's behaviors were greatly influenced by contextual variables. Audience, purpose, genre, and other elements of writing all contribute to different writing outcomes. The same principle might apply equally to the present study. If the subjects had been given a different writing task, they might have shown different writing abilities. Different writing tasks would also ask different levels of language skills. In the study, English-language needs for the tasks might be satisfied when the subjects reached 51 points on the Michigan Test, so additional

English-language skills might be of little help in improving their EFL writing abilities. The study in which the same subjects are given different writing tests, will help us understand how necessary linguistic abilities vary depending on different writing tasks.

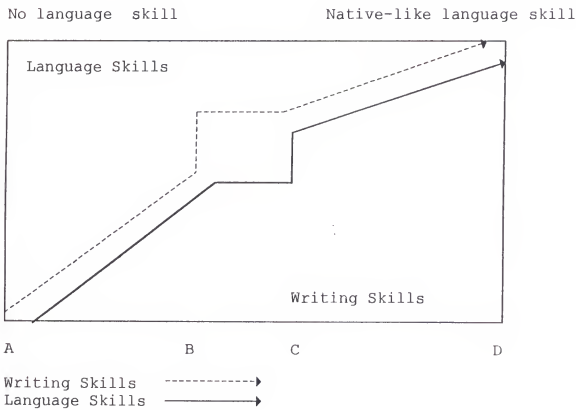


Figure 4. Effect of the Interaction between English-language and Korean Writing skills on EFL Writing Skills

Figure 4 graphically presents the effect of the interaction between the subjects' English-language and Korean writing skills on their EFL writing skills. In the

figure, the horizontal lines in the rectangle indicate the degree of the subjects' interlanguage development. The vertical lines indicate the relative importance of either English-language skills or writing skills in doing EFL writing. The arrow lines show how the importance of English-language or writing skills varies in the continuum of the writer's interlanguage development. Point A in the figure indicates zero point on the Michigan Test, Point B 41 points, Point C 51 points, and Point D the perfect 100 points.

For the low English-language proficiency subjects, the EFL writing skills were significantly correlated with their English-language proficiency. In figure 4, the interval between Point A and C indicates that the subjects' English-language proficiency was significantly correlated with the EFL writing abilities. As the subjects' English-language proficiency reached Point C, the relationship between the proficiency and the EFL writing abilities became insignificant, suggesting that it was no longer an important factor in determining the EFL writing abilities.

When their English proficiency reached Point B, 41 points on the Michigan Test, their writing skills became significantly correlated with the EFL writing skills. However, this did not mean that their English-language skills became insignificant to their EFL writing skills.

The interval between Points B and C on the figure indicates the range where both the English-language proficiency and Korean writing skills were significantly correlated with the EFL writing skills.

When the subjects' English-language proficiency reached Point C, 51 points on the Michigan Test, the English-language skills became insignificant and instead, only the writing skills transferred from Korean writing became significantly correlated with the EFL writing skills. Point C strongly suggests that EFL writing does not require the writer to possess native-like English-language proficiency. On the contrary, it proposes that, if the writer reaches a certain level of English-language proficiency, he/she feels rather free from the linguistic constraints and is ready to create and communicate meaning through writing in English.

Multiple regression analysis in the present study provided the information about how much the subjects' EFL writing abilities could be predicted by their English-language proficiency and writing skills. For the low English-language proficiency group whose Michigan Test mean score was 37.45, while the Korean writing test scores could predict only .3% of the EFL writing test scores, 35% of the dependent variable could be predicted by the English-language proficiency test scores. In contrast, for the subjects who scored 51 or more points on the Michigan Test,

while the English-language proficiency test could predict only 2.2% of the EFL writing test scores, the Korean writing test scores could predict 30.5% of the dependent variable. Overall, about one-third of the subjects EFL writing abilities could be predicted by the English-language proficiency for the low English-language proficiency group and by the Korean writing abilities for the high proficiency group. In contrast, little prediction for the EFL writing abilities could be made by the Korean writing abilities for the low proficiency group and by the English-language proficiency for the high proficiency group.

The present study identified three phases of EFL writing instruction development. In the first phase, since only the English-language skills were significantly correlated with the EFL writing skills for the subjects whose Michigan Test scores were below 41 points, the focus of the instruction should be on improving their English-language skills. In the second phase, since both the English-language and writing skills were significantly correlated with the EFL writing skills for the subjects whose Michigan Test scores were between 41 and 50 points, the weight of English-language instruction should be reduced and instead, writing skill instruction should be introduced to the EFL writing classroom. For the subjects whose Michigan Test scores were 51 or more points, English-

language instruction should be supplementary to the writing skill instruction. The order of EFL writing instruction development is presented in Figure 5.

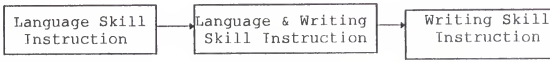


Figure 5. EFL Writing Instruction Development

This model of foreign-language writing instruction development carries implications to foreign-language writing teaching practices. First, the teacher should know his/her students' interlanguage development as well as the necessary level of foreign-language skills to cope with the writing tasks in the curriculum. Only after the teacher understand the students' interlanguage development and the necessary level of foreign-language skills for the writing, can he/she provide them with the instruction which can meet their needs in doing the writing. Second, the model casts doubts on the value of overemphasizing composition skills in the instruction for students in a low level of foreign-language proficiency and language skills for those in the high level. Writing abilities begin to develop from the ability to generate language and developing of the higher-level writing skills is not possible until the writer fully masters the skills to produce language automatically (Bereiter, 1980).

Therefore, to teach higher-level writing skills provides little help to improve the foreign-language writing abilities for those at a low level of the foreign-language proficiency. In contrast, for students who show a considerable degree of mastering skills to generate language, to overemphasize language skills does not help them improve their foreign-language writing abilities.

Contrastive Rhetoric

In light of the results of the present study, the idea of contrastive rhetoric needs to be reexamined. Kaplan (1966) suggested the negative transfer of writing skills from first- to second- or foreign-language writing. It assumes that, as a writer becomes more proficient in first-language writing, it is more difficult for him/her to be proficient in second- or foreign-language writing due to the deeply engraved first-language writing skills on his/her mind. The results of the present study, however, did not support the contrastive rhetoric theory. In the present study, once the writer scored 51 or more points on the Michigan Test, his/her Korean writing skills were significantly correlated with the EFL writing skills. Therefore, instead of regarding writing skills as culturally governed, they need to be seen as skills to solve cognitive problems, which has universal application to different languages. Although different cultures create different

rhetorical situations and problems, if the writer is good at solving the problems in one rhetorical situation, he/she is more likely to solve the problems effectively in another rhetorical situation than one who is poor at the former situation.

In addition, as the Korean composition examination sample (Yonsei University, 1996) showed, Korean students are given writing instruction which is based on the principles of western rhetoric. Mohan and Lo (1985) also recognized the importance of formal education in learning writing skills. Therefore, the present study strongly suggests that, if a student is capable of producing individual sentences in English without much difficulty and he/she is good at Korean writing, his/her Korean writing skills help him/her write in English. This finding is sharply contrasted with what the contrastive rhetoric theory assumes regarding the relationship between first- and foreign-language writing abilities.

Hypothesis 2

The correlation coefficients between the subjects' scores on each section of the Michigan Test and the EFL writing test scores showed how individual English-language skills were related to the EFL writing skills. The relationships between the scores on each section of the Michigan Test and the EFL writing test scores were all

significant for the low English-language proficiency group. In contrast to the low proficiency group, none of the correlation coefficients was not significant for the high proficiency group.

Since English grammar and vocabulary skills are critical to producing a sentence in English, it was not surprising to find the close relationships between the scores on the grammar and vocabulary sections of the Michigan Test and the EFL writing test scores for the low English-language proficiency group. In contrast, because to write a sentence in English could be done without much difficulty for the high proficiency group, the improvement of English grammar and vocabulary skills little contributed to that of their EFL writing skills.

An important point to notice is that the relationship between the subjects' EFL reading and writing scores were not significant for the high English-language proficiency group. Krashen (1984) postulated the close relationship between second-language reading and writing. Smith (1983) mentioned that writing skills were derived from reading.

> To learn how to write for newspapers, you must read newspapers; textbooks about them will not suffice. For magazines, browse through magazines rather than through correspondence courses on magazine writing. To write poetry, read it. For the conventional style, style of your memoranda in your school, consult your school file. (p. 560)

Although the relationship was the highest among the relationships between the scores on the three sections of the Michigan Test and the EFL writing test scores, the relationship was not significant ($r = .21$, $p < .31$). The result seem to suggest that the focus of reading is important in relating reading skills to writing skills. Kern (1989) mentioned that second-language readers were more linguistically bound to the text than first-language readers and might not be able to allocate cognitive resources to carry out a higher-level interpretive process effectively. Joycey (1987) listed possible identification tasks the reader might be performing while reading the text.

1. the reasons why the writer produced the text
2. the type of organization of the text: its coherence
3. the content of the information in the text
4. the structures and the words in the text: their recognition and the reasons for their inclusion
5. the ways in which each individual reader approaches the reading text
6. each reader's reason for reading the text
7. the way in which each individual reader approaches to reading task
8. the reader's expectation of what the text is about, the interest it creates, and the reasons to continue reading
9. approaches to dealing with ambiguity and unknown words
10. the way in which the text relates to the real world. (p. 90)

Of the listed tasks, the reader at least needs to pay attention to 2, 3, 4, and 5 in order to transfer his/her reading abilities to writing. If the focus of reading stops

at analyzing language structures and translating the literal meaning of the text to the first language at the sentence level, reading will hardly contribute to the development of writing skills. Krashen (1984) described the type of reading necessary to develop writing skills: "It is reading that gives the writer the "feel" for the look and texture of the reader-based prose." (p. 20)

The correlation coefficient between the scores on the reading comprehension section of the Michigan Test and the EFL writing test scores was higher for the low English-language proficiency group than for the high English-language proficiency group (.31 versus .21). The higher correlation coefficient between the EFL reading and writing test scores for the low English-language proficiency group did not mean that they were more active in utilizing the knowledge from EFL reading in doing the writing than the high English-language proficiency group. The higher correlation coefficient should be regarded as one example of the close relationship between the English-language and EFL writing skills. Furthermore, the insignificant relationship between the reading and writing skills for the high English-language proficiency group might suggest that, although they could read and write in English without much linguistic difficulty, their reading skills were not fully utilized to develop higher-level writing skills. It seemed that their

attention mostly remained at the sentence level of the text, so the useful information the text provided was hardly utilized in doing the writing.

Hypothesis 4

The correlation coefficients between the scores on each scoring category of the Korean and EFL writing test revealed that the EFL and Korean writing test scores were significantly correlated to each other on the organization category for the high English-language proficiency group. The results seemed to indicate that except for the group who had much trouble in creating text due to too low English-language proficiency, the organization skill transferred from Korean to EFL writing. This result clearly contrasted with the contrastive rhetoric theory, which stresses differences in textual organization between different languages. The result clearly showed that, regardless of linguistic differences in different languages, if rhetorical situations are similar in overall ways, writings are governed by similar rhetorical constraints, which lead to more or less similar textual organization.

The word choice category draws another kind of attention. The correlation coefficient between the Korean and EFL writing test scores on this category were significant to both the low and high English-language proficiency groups at the .05 level. These results were

unexpected, in that EFL writers should have an adequate level of lexical knowledge to express ideas and the subjects in the low English-language proficiency group did not seem to possess the appropriate level of English lexical knowledge (13.28 points out of the perfect 40 points on the vocabulary section of the Michigan Test). One possible interpretation of this is that they could successfully manage the EFL writing task with their limited lexical repertoire. Although their lexical knowledge was limited, they knew how to utilize their limited lexical knowledge quite effectively. Thus, the ability to use words correctly and effectively transferred from their Korean to EFL writings.

However, the correlation coefficient between the Korean and EFL writing test scores on the word choice category for the low English-language proficiency group was weaker ($r= .27$) than that for the high English-language proficiency group ($r= .47$) and the correlation coefficient between the scores on the word choice category in the EFL writing test and on the vocabulary section of the Michigan Test was .29, which was significant at the .05 level for the low English-language proficiency group. In addition, while the mean score on the word choice category was 3.62 for the high English-language proficiency group, it was 2.43 for the low English-language proficiency group. The mean score

difference was significant at the .05 level ($F(1, 83) = 35.51$. $p < .00$). It indicated that the ability to use correct and adequate English words in the EFL writing test was closely related to both their Korean writing skills and their English-language proficiency for the low English-language proficiency group.

Implications for Foreign-Language Writing Teaching

Communicative Competence and Foreign-Language Writing

The present study revealed the importance of English-language proficiency for the low English-language proficiency group and of writing skills for the high English-language proficiency group in EFL writing. To be proficient in EFL writing, the writer needs to understand that writing is a social interaction, so he/she needs to follow rules which govern the interaction with the reader. Nystrand and Himley (1984) stressed the importance of reciprocity in written discourse. Like speakers, writers produce language to engage in discourse which is functional in the context of language use. Hymes (1971) pointed out that language use should be understood in terms of its context and function and introduced the concept of communicative competence. Swain and Canale (1982) defined four necessary elements of second- or foreign-language communication.

The concept of communicative competence is of critical importance in the present study, in that foreign-language writing should be understood in terms of communicative functions it carries. If foreign-language writing instruction fails to provide students with communicative context for the writing, it easily becomes a mere grammar exercise and the improvement of the writing abilities is hardly expected from the instruction. Since the communicative competence theory is comprehensive enough to deal with most aspects of language use, the theory can help the teacher decide what skills need to be taught in the classroom.

The first element needed in second- or foreign-language communication is grammatical competence. Grammatical competence refers to a language user's knowledge of language structure on a sentence level. Savignon (1983) defined grammatical competence as "mastery of the linguistic code, the ability to recognize the lexical, morphological, syntactic, and phonological features of a language and to manipulate these features to form words and sentences (p. 37)." Unlike oral speech, communication mainly depends only on text in written discourse. Raimes (1983) compared written discourse with oral discourse. In oral discourse where all communication participants are present at the same time and place, there is not much need to elaborate the

context of communication. Much of the context is assumed to have been implicitly understood by the participants. In addition, use of paralinguistic tools like facial expressions and gestures helps facilitate the communication with the listener in oral communication. In contrast, the writer has more difficulty in recognizing what contextual knowledge he/she shares with the reader than the speaker. Therefore, the writer should use language in a precise and effective manner. Without adequate grammatical competence, the writer would have a considerable amount of difficulty in communicating his/her meaning with the reader.

The same principle applies to foreign-language writing. Foreign-language writers need to use grammatically correct language to avoid communication breakdowns and misunderstandings. The present study showed that grammatical knowledge was critical to doing EFL writing to those who were at the low level of English-language proficiency. As they had considerable difficulty in producing sentences in English, they seemed to need to improve their grammatical knowledge, at least, until they reached produce a sentence without much difficulty. The teacher also needs to monitor his/her students' linguistic development closely and provide appropriate writing tasks which are moderately challenging, but can be dealt with within their linguistic abilities (Krashen, 1982). However, the teacher should be cautious in

providing them with grammar exercises. All language learning activities are to be framed within communicative context, so they need to learn how to apply the learned grammar skills to actual communicative situations. The teacher should provide his/her students with opportunities to write with real communicative purposes as well as to practice grammatical skills at the same time.

In addition to grammatical competence, foreign-language writers need to know socio-cultural rules of language use. Writing is a social interaction, so the writer should understand the appropriateness of his/her language use in a given communication situation. Hymes (1971) pointed out three socio-cultural factors of language use:

1. each social relationship entails the selection and/or creation of communicative means considered specific and appropriate to it by its participants
2. the organization of communicative means, in terms of social relationships, confers a structure that is not disclosed in the analysis of the means separately
3. the communicative means available in a relationship condition its nature and outcome. (p. 23)

The first factor indicates that communication means are determined by the context of communication. In this light, foreign-language writers needs to be aware of an appropriate *register* of communication. Halliday, McIntosh, & Strevens (1970) defined *register* as the appropriate form of language in a given communication situation. The second factor

suggests that the social relationship between communication participants frames the discourse patterns which are appropriate to the context. Therefore, language use should be understood as a whole in relation to its context. The third factor suggests that the context defines attributes and possible outcomes of communication. To function appropriately in a given communicative situation, students are instructed to follow social norms which are imposed on their communication behaviors. Unless they follow the norms and behave accordingly, there will be much difficulty in communicating with the native speakers. This principle seems to apply equally to both oral and written discourse.

Sociolinguistic competence makes foreign-language writing communication-oriented. To know social norms imposed on foreign-language writing as well as to write according to the norms enable the writer not only to fulfill a certain function in his/her message but also to function appropriately in a given communication situation. Pedagogically, sociolinguistic competence is critical in the development of foreign-language writing skills and cannot be neglected in the curriculum. The best way to teach students sociolinguistic competence is to provide them with opportunities to write in a real communicative context, so they can understand what constraints are imposed on their

writings and how to write appropriately in response to the context.

The third element needed for effective communication is discourse competence. Discourse competence concerns the connection of sentences in a text. To provide the reader or hearer with a clear message, sentences should be well organized to make a meaningful whole. Savignon (1983) mentioned that the global meaning of text is greater than the sum of the individual sentences. The writer or speaker needs to pay attention to both syntactic and semantic connection of sentences. *Cohesion* refers to grammatical connection of sentences. When an idea develops in a text, the development should be marked in grammatically correct ways. Therefore, the writer should be able to use pronouns, conjunctions, ellipses, and other grammatical devices correctly to denote the development of the idea in the text. Inappropriate use of cohesive devices causes the meaning of the text to be misunderstood. *Coherence* refers to semantic consistency between sentences in a text. Sentences in a paragraph or an entire text should be around and about the central theme, which should be explained in a clear, orderly manner.

Discourse competence is also an important writing skill. In contrast to oral speech, where the comprehension of speech can be checked instantly, if the text is poorly

organized, it is not easy for the reader to follow how an idea develops in the text. Foreign-language writers need to be trained to develop inter-sentential structures. To develop students' discourse competence, they need to be trained to review not only individual sentences but also the whole text, so they can understand how individual sentences contribute to the meaning of the whole text and how individual sentences need to be organized around the central theme of the text. As Murray (1980) mentioned that writing is a process of exploring and clarifying the writer's intended meaning, the organization of individual sentences should be done throughout the whole process of writing. Therefore, students should understand that an ill-organized text is very difficult to read and organizing sentences should be continued until the intended meaning becomes clear.

The last element of communicative competence is strategic competence. Strategic competence is particularly important to foreign-language speakers who have limited linguistic knowledge. Savignon (1983) defined strategic competence as the strategies by which writers "compensated for imperfect knowledge of rules or limiting factors in their application such as fatigue, distraction, and inattention." (p. 40) Tarone (1978) listed four types of strategic competence. First, when foreign-language speakers

do not know correct rules or words in a given communicative situation, they invent semantically close structures and vocabulary items to the target ones. Second, instead of using the target structures and words, the speakers attempt to describe the characteristics and elements of the objects. Third, the speakers seek to communicate by utilizing other communication instruments rather than by attempting to produce the target structures and words. They often translate word-for-word from the native language, switch to the native language, ask for assistance, and use non-verbal strategies. The last type of strategic competence is avoidance of the topic and abandonment of the previous messages. The speakers often use these strategies when they are not confident of their ability to continue the conversation.

Strategic competence was often found in the writings of the low English-language proficiency group in the present study. For example, one subject in the group paraphrased the word "pollution" into "black smoke and dirty water." The Korean words inserted in their EFL writings were generally abstract and difficult ones. Their paraphrasing and language-switching seemed to suggest that they attempted to paraphrase unknown English words first, then gave up the attempt and used Korean words, with little hope of being understood by the reader. Because foreign-language writers

are incomplete in their mastery of foreign-language skills and they need to cope with this, students need to be instructed to compensate for their linguistic weakness until they acquire the target structures and words. For example, they need to be taught how to paraphrase difficult structures and words with simple, easy ones to facilitate their attempts to communicate with the native speakers. If the writer stops attempting to write in a foreign language because of a few difficult structures and words, it is very detrimental to his/her further writing development. Therefore, although compromise is involved in the semantic and syntactic accuracy of writing, low English-language proficiency writers needs to be encouraged to utilize the paraphrasing strategy. However, because it may be possible for the writers to overuse the compesatory strategy for their linguistic difficulties, instead of attempting to learn the target structures and words, the teacher should be cautious lest their writings be fossilized by the overuse.

The communicative competence theory clearly presents what foreign-language writers need to learn to deal with writing tasks. The writer needs to develop grammatical, sociolinguistic, and discourse competence to be proficient in foreign-language writing. Form and function are inseparable aspects of writing. Therefore, the teacher should be careful about including all of the necessary

language and writing skills in the curriculum. Only when there is a balance between instruction in language and in writing skills, can students' maximum proficiency in foreign-language writing be expected.

When students practice their foreign-language writing skills, the practice should be done under communicative context. They should be able to find who the audience of their writing is as well as what the purpose is. Unless the writing were framed within communicative context, it would be very difficult for them learn ways to communicate their ideas in the writing. The four elements of communicative competence are inseparable from each other in actual communicative situations. They are integrated to make one's complete knowledge to communicate clearly and effectively in a given communicative situation. When a person speaks or writes, it is unimaginable to think the situation where grammatical or sociolinguistic competence, for example, alone leads to successful communication. Therefore, foreign-language writing learners should be provided opportunities to practice their integrated communicative skills in actual communicative situations.

Analysis of Foreign-Language Writing Tasks

Foreign-language writing needs to be seen as consisting of a set of tasks in order for the teacher to provide the necessary, adequate instruction. Thus, the teacher needs to

analyze the tasks required in writing. The reviewed communicative competence theory can be seen as an example of task analysis which presents necessary tasks foreign-language speakers or writers must deal with in communicating in a foreign language. Before the teacher begins to select and analyze the tasks, he/she should analyze students' learning needs. This need analysis should be the basis for subsequent instructional decisions.

Language use can be understood in terms of notions and functions it carries (Findley & Nathan, 1980; Page, 1979). Notions are what we talk about and functions are what we use language for (Page, 1979). A list of notions and functions provides broad goals, learner needs, and required competencies in foreign-language syllabuses. Notions and functions which are to be included in the syllabuses and which the learner is required to fulfill, are determined on the basis of the context of language use. After students' learning needs are differentiated as notions and functions, they need to be integrated into the teacher's instructional decision regarding what to be included in the curriculum.

The notional/functional syllabus approach to foreign-language teaching has implications for the present study. First, foreign-language writing should be considered to be a task. The writer is required to complete the task by using his/her linguistic and non-linguistic skills. As the

notional/functional syllabus approach emphasizes the importance of the analysis of the learner's needs, a foreign-language writing teacher also needs to analyze his/her students' writing needs to bring the important, necessary writing tasks to the classroom. The teacher needs to determine whether his/her students have necessary skills to complete the task. That is, the teacher should realize that the students are required to utilize their grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse, and other skills to complete the task successfully. If necessary, the needed skills should be taught to the students. This method of foreign-language writing teaching may prevent students' possible difficulties in doing foreign-language writing in advance, and further lead them to heuristic learning of foreign-language writing. This teaching method is similar to the widely used task-based or content-based foreign-language instruction. For example, Snow and Brinton (1988) presented the Freshman Summer Program (FSP) at the University of California, Los Angeles, in which academically necessary ESL skills were taught to the non-native freshmen along with some basic core courses.

Second, foreign-language writing activities should be communication-oriented. Many studies suggests that grammar exercises should be provided within communicative context and the overall purpose of grammar learning is to develop

students' abilities to communicate in a foreign language (Fotos, 1994; Long, 1992; Major, 1988; Terrell, 1991; VanPatten, 1993). Students should be taught that the learned grammatical knowledge has applications to actual communicative situations. If they do not understand the communicative value of the learned grammatical knowledge, they may lose their interest in learning a foreign language. Consequently, this lack of interest can prevent them from gaining high foreign-language proficiency. This principle applies equally to learning foreign-language writing. The teacher always needs to provide his/her students with opportunities in which previously learned grammatical knowledge contributes to actual foreign-language writings. In practice, he/she needs to develop writing exercises in which students can practice the learned grammatical skills and improve writing skills simultaneously. If the exercises do not provide students with opportunities to practice the grammatical skills, it must be very difficult to expect their writing skills to improve. As their writing abilities grow, they need to meet more difficult, complicated rhetorical needs. However, linguistic inability would prevent them from meeting the needs. Consequently, it will make them unable to develop higher-level writing skills.

In the present study, it was suggested that writers with low English-language proficiency could benefit from

grammar-focused writing instruction. Whatever type of writing instruction is provided to students, the instruction should be framed within communicative context. While writing is to create and communicate the writer's intended meaning, grammar only enables the writer to present the meaning in linguistic ways. So learning writing should mean more than learning grammar. With this relationship between writing and grammar in mind, the teacher needs to develop writing exercises in which students can improve their grammatical skills in their attempt to write and communicate in a foreign language. This type of writing exercises is needed for students at the low level of English-language proficiency to improve their grammatical knowledge and, in turn, develop higher-level writing skills.

Limitations and Suggestions

The findings of the present study may not be the same as those of many second-language writing studies. The context of foreign-language writing differs from that of second-language writing. Second-language writers have more opportunities to practice the writing as well as to be exposed to written materials than do foreign-language writers. Second-language writers are forced to write in the language in their everyday lives. In contrast, except for special occasions, foreign-language writers do not need to do so. The differences in opportunities and purposes

between second- and foreign-language writing make them distinct from each other. Although the findings of the present study has many implications for second-language writing research and pedagogy, they should be understood in the context of foreign-language writing.

The second limitation of the present study pertains to the characteristics of given writing tasks. The results of the present study may differ from those of other studies, in that different writing tasks ask different levels of language and writing skills. Different genres, audiences, topics, and many other variables all contribute to different results for different writing studies. For example, an easier writing task than the one in the present study would lower the threshold level and make most of the subjects look more linguistically competent in doing the writing. In turn, the result would lead the researcher to emphasize writing skills over language skills more than he did in the study. In contrast, a writing task which asks more linguistic knowledge than the one in the study, would make the subjects look less linguistically competent and lead him to conclude that most of the subjects needed more linguistic knowledge to do EFL writing without much linguistic constraints. Therefore, the present study should be interpreted with its contextual limits in mind.

The third limitation of the study is the small number of high English-language proficiency subjects. Although the subjects in the study seem close to a representative sample of the Korean college student population in terms of their English-language proficiency, the inclusion of more high English-language proficiency subjects in the study could have provided a more detailed explanation of the effect of the interaction between language and writing skills on EFL writing for EFL writing learners with high English-language proficiency.

The limits of the present study suggest future research directions. Studies similar to the present study with different topics, audiences, genres, and other variables need to be repeated until generalizations about the effect of the interaction between language and writing skills on EFL writing can be made. Future research also needs to include a large number of subjects at each English-language proficiency level. A large volume of empirical evidence conducted in different writing contexts and with a large number of samples will disclose a clear picture of foreign-language writing in relation to language and writing skills and help teachers provide their students with more adequate foreign-language instruction based on the students' language and writing skill development.

APPENDIX A
LETTER OF CONSENT TO STUDENTS

Dear Korean College Student

My name is Hoyeol Ryu. I am a doctoral candidate at the University of Florida in the Department of Instruction and Curriculum. I am currently conducting my doctoral research, which examines the relationship between Korean college students' writing and their English-language proficiency and English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) composition skills. Through this study, I would like to reveal whether English-language knowledge is a decisive factor relating to composition in EFL or if much of the students' EFL writing skills are attributed to composition skills which are present in first language.

The study will ask you to complete three sets of tests. First, you will be asked to take the Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency to measure your English-language proficiency. Second and last, you will take a Korean and an English writing test to study your Korean and English writing abilities. I am planning to conduct the study over a two week period.

In order to match up these three assessments, participants are asked to place their student ID number on them. When the data is compiled, the student ID number will be replaced by a code number to protect their confidentiality. There are no anticipated risks or benefits to participants in this study. No compensation is offered for participation. Participants may withdraw at any time without prejudice. If you have any questions about this research, you may contact me at (352) 846-5545. Questions or concerns about participants' rights can be directed to the UFIRB office, University of Florida, Box 112250, Gainesville, FL 32611.

I appreciate your taking time to read this request letter. Although participation in this study would require four hours of your instruction time, I believe that your cooperation will greatly contribute to the development of

English education in this country. Your favorable consideration of this request will be greatly appreciated.

Sincerely

Hoyeol Ryu, M.A.
Doctoral Candidate

I, _____, have read the procedure described above. I voluntarily agree to participate in the procedure.

Student Signature and Date _____

APPENDIX B
LETTER OF CONSENT TO INSTRUCTORS

Dear College English Instructors:

My name is Hoyeol Ryu. I am a doctoral candidate at the University of Florida in the Department of Instruction and Curriculum. I am currently conducting my doctoral research, which examines the relationships among Korean college students' English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) writing skills, English-language proficiency and composition skills. Through this study, I would like to reveal whether English-language proficiency is a decisive factor relating to composition in EFL, or if much of EFL writing skills can be attributed to composition skills which are present in students' first-language writing.

The study will ask your students to complete three sets of tests. First, your students will be asked to take the Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency to measure their English-language proficiency. Second and last, they will take a Korean and an English writing test to assess their Korean and English writing abilities. It will take a total of four hours to complete all three measurements. I am planning to conduct the study over a two week period.

In order to match up these three assessments, participants are asked to place their student ID number on them. When the data is compiled, the student ID number will be replaced by a code number to protect their confidentiality. There are no anticipated risks or benefits to participants in this study. No compensation is offered for participation. Participants may withdraw at any time without prejudice. If you have any questions about this research, you may contact me at (352) 846-5545. Questions or concerns about participants' rights can be directed to the UFIRB office, University of Florida, Box 112250, Gainesville, FL 32611.

I appreciate your taking time to read this request letter. Although this study would require four hours of your instruction time, I believe that your cooperation will

contribute to the development of English education in the country. I will be in contact with you soon to discuss the study at greater length and again to ask your assistance. Your favorable consideration of this request will be greatly appreciated.

Sincerely

Hoyeol Ryu, M.A.
Doctoral Candidate

I,_____, have read the procedure described above. I voluntarily agree to participate in the procedure.

Instructor Signature and Date_____

APPENDIX C
WRITING TEST SHEET (TOPIC A)

Student ID Number _____

You will be given 45 minutes to complete the writing task described below. Any aid materials such as a dictionary or a grammar book are not permitted during your writing. Once you have finished writing, you may turn in the paper to the instructor and leave the room.

Topic A

One of the biggest companies in the country has a plan to build a large factory near your hometown. The opinions of the residents in the town are divided regarding whether the factory should be built or not. Those who support the plan argue that the factory will revitalize the local economy with large scale employment of the residents and a large amount of local tax payment. Those who oppose the plan respond to the supporters' argument by saying that the factory will negatively affect the residents' life in such ways as by increasing the crime rate and creating pollution. Which side are you on? Write a letter to a person who is in a position to influence the decision and persuade him/her to be on your side.

APPENDIX D
WRITING TEST SHEET (TOPIC B)

Student ID Number _____

You will given 45 minutes to complete the writing task described below. Any aid materials such as a dictionary or a grammar book are not permitted during your writing. Once you have finished writing, you may turn in the paper to the instructor and leave the room.

Topic B

With a rapid increase in the number of automobiles in the city, severe traffic congestion occurs throughout the city nowadays. The city council proposed a plan to encourage the residents to use public transportation and bicycles. They intend to reserve two lanes of the existing roadway in certain areas, one for the public bus system and another for bicycle riders. The plan draws both support and opposition from the residents. Those who support the plan mention that the plan will reduce their commuting time. Those who oppose the plan argue that car owners will use their cars to commute despite the plan and the plan will add another traffic problem to the existing ones in the city. Which side are you on? Write a letter to a person who is in a position to influence the decision and persuade him/her to be on your side.

APPENDIX E

SCORING PRINCIPLES FOR KOREAN AND ENGLISH WRITING TEST

Ideas and Content

Score of 10. This paper is clear, focused, and interesting. It holds the reader's attention. Relevant anecdotes and details enrich the central theme or story line.

The writer seems to be writing from experiences and shows insight: a good sense of how events unfold, how people respond to life and to each other, and how ideas relate.

Supporting, relevant, telling details give the reader important information that he or she could not personally bring to the text. This writer seems to notice what others might overlook.

The writer has balance: Main ideas stand out; secondary ideas do not usurp too much attention.

The writer seems to be in control and orchestrates development of the topic in an enlightening, entertaining way.

The writer works with shapes, ideas, making connections and sharing insights that reflect his or her own thinking.

6. The paper is clear and focused, even though overall result may not be especially captivating. Support is attempted, but it may be limited or obvious, insubstantial, too general, or out of balance with main ideas.

The writer may or may not be writing from experience but, either way, has difficulty going from general observations to specific points or useful insights.

The writer seems to have considered ideas but only superficially and in a way that enables the reader readily to second-guess the plot or the main points of the text.

Ideas, though reasonably clear, often tend toward mundane; the reader is not sorry to see the paper end.

Conclusions or main points seem to echo observations heard elsewhere; only on occasion do they seem to reflect the writer's own thinking.

Supporting details tend to be skimpy, general, or predictable.

Control is sporadic; the writer is beginning to define the topic but isn't there yet.

2. The paper lacks a central idea or purpose, or forces the reader to make inferences based on very sketchy details.

Information is very limited or simply unclear.

Details do not ring true. They evolve from clichés, platitudes, or stereotypes and not from the writer's own thinking or experience.

Attempts at development may be minimal or may clutter up the text with random thoughts from which no central theme emerges.

The writer has not begun to define the topic in any meaningful or personal way.

Organization

10. The organization enhances and showcases the central idea or theme. The order, structure, or presentation is compelling and moves the reader through the text.

Details seem to fit where they're placed.

An inviting introduction draws the reader in, and a satisfying conclusion leaves the reader with a sense of resolution.

Transitions are smooth and weave the separate threads of meaning into one cohesive whole.

Organization flows so smoothly that the reader may not be conscious of organizational patterns or structures unless looking for them.

6. The reader can readily follow what's being said, but the overall organization may be sometimes ineffective or too obvious.

The introduction and conclusion are recognizable, though not so well crafted or well connected to the central theme as the reader might wish.

Placement or relevance of some details leaves the reader occasionally confused or impatient.

The paper sometimes moves along at a good place but at other times bogs down in trivia or speeds along too rapidly.

Transitions sometimes work well; at other times the connections between ideas seem forced, inappropriate, or too easily anticipated.

Despite problems, the organization does not seriously get in the way of the main point or the story line.

2. Organization is haphazard and disjointed. The writing lacks direction, with ideas, details, or events strung together helter-skelter.

There is no clearly identifiable introduction or conclusion.

Transitions are very weak, leaving connections between ideas fuzzy, incomplete, or bewildering.

Details often serve only to confuse the reader or to fill space; they do not contribute to the central theme or the purpose of the text.

Noticeable gaps in information confuse and confound the reader.

Pacing is consistently awkward, so that the reader feels either mired down in irrelevant trivia or rushed along at a breathless pace.

Lack of organization ultimately obscures or distorts the main point or the purposes of the text.

Voice

5. The writer speaks directly to the reader in a way that is individualistic, expressive, and engaging. Clearly, the writer is involved in the text and is writing to be read.

The paper is honest and written from the heart. It has the ring of conviction.

The language is natural yet provocative; it brings the topic to life.

The reader feels a strong sense of interaction with the writer and senses the person behind the words.

The projected tone and voice clarify and give flavor to the writer's message.

3. The writer seems sincere but not fully involved in the topic. The result is pleasant, acceptable, sometimes even personable, but not compelling.

The writer seems to weigh words carefully, to keep a safe distance between writer and reader, to avoid risk, and to write what he or she thinks the reader wants.

The writing tends to hide rather than reveal the writer.

The writing communicates in an earnest but fairly routine manner, and only occasionally amuses, surprises, delights, or moves the reader.

Voice may emerge strongly on occasion, only to shift or to disappear a line or two behind a facade of general, vague, or abstract language.

1. The writer seems wholly indifferent, uninvolved, or dispassionate. As a result, the writing is flat, lifeless, stiff, or mechanical. It may be (depending on the topic) overly technical or jargonistic.

The reader has no sense of the writer behind the words and no sense of a real desire on the part of the writer to communicate.

The writer seems to speak in a kind of monotone that flatens all potential highs or lows of the message.

The writing communicates on a functional level, at best, without moving or involving the reader at all.

Delivery is so consistently flat that the reader may find it hard to focus on the message even when the wording seems reasonably clear and correct.

Sentence Fluency

5. The writing has an easy flow and rhythm when read aloud. Sentences are well built, with consistently strong and varied structure that makes expressive oral reading easy and enjoyable.

Sentence structure reflects logic and sense, helping to show how ideas relate.

The writing sounds natural and fluent; it glides along with effective phrasing, one sentence flowing effortlessly into the text.

Writing is appropriately concise, yet not terse. Sentences display an effective combination of power and grace.

Sentences vary in structure and length, adding interest to the text.

Fragments, if used at all, work well.

Dialogue, if used, sounds natural.

3. Sentences tend to be mechanical rather than fluid. The text hums along efficiently for the most part, though it may lack a certain rhythm or grace, tending to be more pleasant than musical. Occasional awkward constructions force the reader to slow down or reread.

Sentence structure sometimes clearly conveys relationships between ideas, and sometimes not. Connections between phrases or sentences may be less fluid than desired.

The writer shows good control with simple sentence structure but variable control over complex syntax.

Sentences sometimes vary in length or structure, but, for the most part, the writer falls into a pattern and sticks with it.

Fragments, if used, sometimes work but sometimes seem the result of oversight.

Dialogue, if used, sometimes rings true but sometimes sounds forced or contrived.

Sentences, though functional, often lack energy.

Some parts of the text invite expressive oral reading; others may be a bit stiff.

1. The paper is difficult to follow or to read aloud. Sentences tend to be choppy, incomplete, rambling, irregular, or just very awkward.

Nonstandard English syntax is common. Word patterns are often jarring and irregular, and far removed from the way people usually write or speak.

Sentence structure does not generally enhance meaning. In fact, it may obscure meaning.

Most sentences seem disjointed, awkward, confused, or nonsensical. They may begin one way and then go off in another direction altogether.

Word patterns often subject the reader to relentlessly monotonous rhythms (e.g., subject-verb or subject-verb-object)

The text does not invite- and may not even permit-expressive oral reading.

Word Choice

5. Words convey the intended meaning in an interesting, precise, and natural way. The writing is full and rich, yet concise.
Words are specific and accurate; they seem just right.

Imagery is strong.

Powerful verbs give the writing energy.

Vocabulary may be striking, but it's natural, and never overdone.

Expression is fresh and appealing; slang is used sparingly.

3. The language is quite ordinary, but it does convey the message: It's functional, even if it lacks punch. Often, the writer settles for what's easy or handy. Producing a sort of "generic paper" stuffed with familiar words and phrases.

The language communicates but rarely captures the reader's imagination. While overall meaning is quite clear, some words may lack precision.

The writer rarely experiments with language; however, the paper may have some fine moments.

Attempts at colorful or poetic language often seem overdone and calculated to impress the reader.

Images lack detail and often depend on the reader's own knowledge on the topic.

Clichés, redundancies, and hackneyed phrases are common.

A few key verbs may liven things up, but equally often, abstract, general, or flat language robs the text of power.

1. The writer struggles with a limited vocabulary, groping for words to convey meaning. Often the language is so vague and abstract or so redundant and devoid of detail that only the broadest, most general sort of message comes through.

Words are consistently dull, colorless, or abstract. There is little for the reader to grasp.

Monotonous repetition or overwhelming reliance on worn, threadbare expressions repeatedly clouds or smothers the message.

Often words simply do not fit the text: They seem imprecise, inadequate, or just plain wrong.

Imagery is just fuzzy or absent altogether; the text is "peopled" only with generalities.

Verbs are weak and few in number; *is, are, was, were* dominate.

Conventions

5. The writer demonstrates a good grasp of standard writing conventions (e.g., grammar, capitalization, punctuation, usage, spelling, paragraphing) and uses them effectively to enhance readability. Errors tend to be so few and so minor that the reader can easily skim right over them unless specifically searching for them.

Paragraphing tends to be sound and to reinforce the organizational structure.

Grammar and usage are correct and contribute to clarity and style.

Punctuation is smooth and guides the reader through the text.

The writer may manipulate conventions- particularly grammar- for stylistic effect.

The writing is sufficiently long and complex to allow the writer to show skill in using a wide range of conventions.

Only light editing would be required to polish the text for publication.

3. Errors in writing conventions, while not overwhelming, begin to impair readability. While errors do not block meaning, they tend to be distracting.

Paragraphing may be inconsistent. Paragraphs sometimes run together or begin in the wrong places.

Terminal (end-of-sentence) punctuation is almost always correct; internal punctuation, however, may be incorrect or missing altogether.

Spelling is usually correct, or reasonably phonetic, on common words.

Problems with usage are not severe enough to distort meaning.

The writer may show reasonable control over a very limited range of conventions, but the text may be too simple or too short to reflect real mastery of conventions.

Errors in all areas tend to show some consistency, for example, a writer may misspell a word the same way throughout the text.

Moderate (more than light but less than extensive) editing would be required to polish the text for publication.

Some errors are minor and seem to reflect hasty editing.

1. Numerous errors in usage, sentence structure, spelling, or punctuation repeatedly distract the reader and make the text difficult to read. In fact, the severity and the frequency of errors tend to be so overwhelming that the

reader find it very difficult to focus on the message and must reread for meaning.

The writer shows very limited skill in using conventions. Basic punctuation (including terminal punctuation) tends to be omitted, haphazard, or incorrect.

Spelling errors are frequent, even on common words, and are not always phonetic.

Paragraphing may be highly irregular, absent altogether, or so frequent (every sentence) that it bears no relation to the organizational structure of the text.

Extensive (e.g., more than moderate) editing would be required to polish the text for publication.

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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Hoyeol Ryu was born to Chong-Im Park and In-Sub Ryu on February 19, 1964, in Chonju, South Korea. In 1989 he graduated from Hankuk University of Foreign Studies, Seoul, South Korea, in English. After the completion of his bachelor's degree, he decided to continue his study at a graduate school in the United States and attended graduate school at the University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kansas, where he received his master's degree in Teaching English as a Second Language in 1991.

After the completion of his master's degree, he enrolled in the doctoral program of English to the Speakers of Other Languages at the University of Florida. During his doctoral study, he developed an interest in the area of foreign-language writing and communicative grammar instruction. He plans to go back to his home country and pursue his career as an instructor at a Korean college after the completion of his doctoral degree.

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

Clemens L. Hallman, Chair
Professor of Instruction and Curriculum

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

David M. Miller
Professor of Foundations of Education

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

Danling Fu
Assistant Professor of Instruction and Curriculum

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

Arthur J. Newman
Professor of Foundations of Education

This dissertation was submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the College of Education and to the Graduate School and was accepted as partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

August 1997

Dean, College of Education

Dean, Graduate School